Public Personnel Review

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editorial

notes and comments

LADY, PLEASE DON'T PINCH THE MELONS!

About three months ago, the secretary of the newly-formed plan commission in a small city made a long distance call to the ASPO office. He wanted the names of possible candidates for a director's job. The commission planned to pay $5,000 per year.

In this particular instance, we had unusually reliable knowledge of the situation. The plan commission had originally talked about asking council for a budget of $1,500, to be matched by $1,500 from the School Board. However, they had been convinced that token measures would be a waste of money. The commission had resolved to go after enough funds to hire a full-time young planner, supplementing his work with the per diem services of an experienced consultant. They would ask for a budget of about $10,000.

There was enough political weight on the commission, in the persons of the chairman and one other member, that it was certain they would get what they wanted.

As certain, that is, as any political maneuver can ever be.

This request for names came in three months ago. The budget item has still not been allowed by the council.

Because we knew the background, we said, sure, we'll help you find a man—*when you have the money in your hands!* To date, we still have not listed the job, nor given the commission any names.

Human beings are not cantaloupes on a fruit stand, to be picked up, pinched, and smelled, finally to be discarded because you didn't want a melon for breakfast anyway. If there is a job to be filled we want to help locate the right man for the job. We feel that through this activity we make one of our greatest contributions to our primary objective: the improvement of city planning. That is why we sometimes have pretty strong reactions when we find that a job is not all that it is painted to be.

It is considered good personnel administration (and we agree) to promote persons from lower into higher positions. We applaud this practice. But we do not like to be asked to advertise a job when it is cut and dried that a staff member already on the scene will be promoted into that job.

Even less do we like to be asked to advertise an examination that is merely to legitimatize the status quo. The ground rules in some cities provide that after six months or so a temporary appointee has only to make a passing grade to become permanent. If this is the rule, so be it. But it is dishonest to say that a vacancy exists for which other persons may apply.

I often wonder why this callous attitude toward human beings? It seems to me that the best explanation is lack of experience in those persons responsible for recruiting. I cannot see how anyone who has ever hunted for a job can behave in this manner.

We do not pretend to be personnel experts. But during the course of a year we read several hundred letters from human beings looking for planning jobs, and we personally interview many others. We know that we speak for these men and women when we ask that those responsible for filling new positions observe a few simple rules of honesty and courtesy:

Don't offer a job when you don't have one and all you want to do is to pinch the melons;

Don't say that you have a job at one salary, then offer the applicant a lower salary;

Don't say you have a job if you plan to promote a staff member or to legitimatize a temporary appointee;

Don't ask an applicant for a personal interview unless you are willing to pay his expenses;

Acknowledge every application promptly;

Make your decision promptly and inform *all* applicants that the decision has been made.

Actually, this whole article was summarized many centuries ago better than I could hope to do it: Therefore, all things whatsoever ye would that men should do to you, do ye even so to them. **Dennis O'Harrow. (Reprinted, with permission, from the July, 1953, Newsletter of the American Society of Planning Officials.)**

The Personnel Man and the Management Team

George C. S. Benson

A GENERALIZED title like "The Personnel Man and the Management Team" requires some definitions. First of all, what do I mean by "Personnel Man"? I believe the term applies to everyone on the staff of a central personnel agency and probably to staff members of departmental personnel units. In this discussion I will not include the line operator, although we all recognize that he must be a personnel man in another sense.

Now, what is the "Management Team"? Clearly, every public jurisdiction must be a part of somebody's management. That somebody may be the president, or governor, or mayor, or city manager, or county manager. Whoever has the responsibility for management deserves a break. He isn't always a good executive, but he has been placed where he is by the people of the jurisdiction concerned. Usually, he wants to have a good administration, even though he may not know how to do it.

Accordingly, the management team should consist of all those administrators who are in a position to help "the boss" out. Obviously, the line operator should be on the management team. I think it would be the general opinion that if any line operator is not he is being disloyal to his chief executive. The same statement can certainly be made for staff people. In fact, since staff men do not have specific line responsibilities, I think it is the general American opinion that staff men should be a little more loyal to their chief executive than should the line operator who has certain separate responsibilities to his job and his department.

It is clear that personnel people are staff people. Yet all of us who have had experience in the public personnel field know how hard it is to get some public personnel people to support their chief executive and to play a part as members of the management team. When I served as Director of Administration in O.P.A. in the last war, my second hardest job was to get personnel and other staff people to recognize that they were part of the management team of O.P.A. Why did our personnel people tend to feel separate from management? There are some good and valid reasons which we must take into account.

Areas of Conflict with Management

The Police Approach. The policeman concept of personnel administration has survived in all our minds because of original and fundamental conflicts between the civil service and the spoilsman approach. A thoughtful polemic against the policeman concept was published by Maxwell DeVoe in the January, 1941, *Public Personnel Review*. Yet the approach still survives. The fact that it has survived indicates that there is some degree of validity to it. As Mr. William Shaw indicated in the July, 1953, issue of the same *Review*, one of the basic drives of American government has been to protect the individual against arbitrary action. This tradition runs into sharp conflict with the natural drive to establish a team around a chief executive that works the way the executive wishes. As I will indicate later, I do not think there is any real organizational answer to the clash between these two fundamental drives. We must learn to work successfully with a compromise mechanism which tries to take both of them into account, even if it cannot completely satisfy either. In other words, we have to recognize that there is some merit in the policeman concept and yet try to keep it from being a purely negative approach. Modern police forces, themselves, face this same conflict and have tried to keep themselves from

• **Dr. George C. S. Benson** is President of Claremont Men's College. This article is adapted from a talk Dr. Benson delivered at the opening session of the 1954 Annual Conference on Public Personnel Administration sponsored by the Civil Service Assembly.

being purely negative. In England some police administrators have had great success in this respect. I believe American public personnel administrators can be equally successful.

Problems of Bureaucracy. A second, but less fundamental, reason why personnel people sometimes tend to draw off by themselves is just sheer bureaucracy. If you take any division in a federal agency and separate it into two divisions, you will inevitably find some friction between the two new divisions before much time has passed. So the mere fact that we bring personnel people together in a separate department or division gives us an inter-divisional obstacle which the good administrator must learn to hurdle. Good administrators can hurdle such obstacles and can train their subordinates to do so, but they have to work at it.

"Remoteness" of Staff Work. A third reason why some personnel agencies fail to work as part of the management team is a difficulty inherent in much staff and service work. In staff work one sometimes fails to get a sense of urgency of the job to be done. The closer people are to an actual job, the more they think about the job and see their task in terms of getting the job done. Staff agencies, especially in administrative headquarters, are sometimes very remote from the urgent pressures of the job. In the Armed Forces during the war, many of us citizen soldiers used to do our best to secure assignments as far from headquarters and as close to operations as we could. Office politics seemed to be less important and a sense of "mission" more important as one neared the front lines and the boom of artillery. The administrative atmosphere was better.

Protection of Individual. A fourth reason why personnel departments may feel separate from the management team is that they may share a perfectly legitimate desire to protect other public employees from arbitrary or unreasonable management demands. As Mr. Shaw pointed out, we have always had in American life a deep-seated desire to protect the individual from arbitrary administrative action. In the academic world, this drive has taken the position of "academic tenure," a system which has many advantages but, like Civil Service, as great or greater disadvantages. In the Armed Forces, trial boards have been established to protect military personnel. I am quite sure that there are similar safeguards in the more hierarchical religious bodies.

If we try to evaluate these four reasons why public personnel people sometimes feel separate from the management team, I think most of us will agree that a first-class administrator should, and can, do much to overcome any problems arising out of bureaucracy or the feelings of aloofness sometimes developed by employees who do staff work. The concept of Civil Service as a policeman against spoils politics and the American tradition to try to protect employees against arbitrary action are, however, much more justifiable and deserve careful consideration so that some of the good in them can be saved.

Organizationally, we have tried to solve problems of conflicting pressure of executive responsibility for personnel and the desire for an independent personnel agency through the advisory board-executive director arrangement. This is an arrangement by which the chief executive appoints the personnel director, but this director is subject to over-riding on rules or individual appeals by two or three associates or a superior board. There are variations of this theme in the federal service, a substantial number of the states, and many local units. The scheme is probably somewhere near the best available for most jurisdictions. But how can it be made to work psychologically? Unless there is a real psychological tie-in with the executive, the people in the central personnel agency will have to spend most of their time trying to sell aspects of a positive personnel program. There is still a tremendous difference, for example, between the positive personnel work of Lockheed Aircraft Company and that of the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission. One is a part of management. The second wants to cooperate with management but has to argue its way.

Thus we find that public personnel administrators are given a constant problem in administrative psychology. It may cheer

you to know that there are other, equally insoluble psychological problems caused by differences in administrative organization. The constant rivalry between the President and Congress in our federal government or between the governor and legislators in our various states are examples. In the academic world, we administrators have constantly with us the smaller but still very important task of trying to bridge the gap between a learned and introverted faculty and an ignorant and extraverted student body. Life will always have such conflicts and it is up to administrators to try to solve them. What suggestions for solution can we make?

Responsibilities of Personnel People

The Job Has to Be Done. It seems to me that we might as well realistically approach the task and recognize that we can never do a perfect job of coordinating. No man in the world has the physical strength, the psychological "savvy," and the time necessary to secure perfect coordination between personnel and other parts of the management team. The fact that the job cannot be perfect, however, should never keep us from trying to make it as good as possible.

The Line Department Must Be Served. There must be constant efforts on the part of the personnel agency to understand departmental programs and departmental personnel needs. I am inclined to doubt if this effort can be secured with the traditional breakdown of the public personnel agency into classification, examination, and in-service activities. It seems to me that the public personnel agency, like other staff agencies, needs to organize itself on the basis of the people whom it is serving.

When I worked in and with the U. S. Budget Bureau, the fact that it was divided into an Estimates and an Administrative Management division handicapped its relations with the operating departments. It is my understanding that it is now organized more nearly on the basis of the line departments of the government and functions much more effectively. Another staff agency with which I had lengthy experience—the Control Division of Army Service Forces—made itself very unpopular because of organization on a functional basis instead of organization on the basis of the great subdivisions of Army Service Forces. The result of this mal-organization was multiple contacts and great annoyance to the line departments.

These examples from other fields of staff endeavor are, I believe, applicable to public personnel units. Control, budget, and personnel agencies have the same administrative problems of how to supervise with understanding and without friction. I doubt if any of them can solve this problem without organization paralleling the line departments.

I have not yet been able to find really good reasons why most public personnel agencies should not make their front-line approach through personnel generalists whose function it is to work with particular operating agencies on all phases of the personnel process. There will, of course, have to be within central personnel agencies persons or small units for coordination of classification policy and recruitment policy. But front-line contacts should be channeled through men whose responsibility it is to help the highway department or the health department do its personnel job, regardless of whether the problem is recruitment, classification, in-service activities, or union relations.

Personnel Man Must Be a Leader. The personnel man must undertake some leadership to overcome the negative aspects of his job. If, for example, a personnel statute compels a public personnel agency to keep incompetent veterans on the job or to use old eligible registers when adequate registers are not available, the personnel administrator should be the first to lead an administrative drive to change the statute. The man who is responsible for central personnel functions in any public jurisdiction has a substantial responsibility. He must be a *leader,* not a *follower.*

Personnel Man Must Anticipate Problems. The personnel man must not be a management wallflower. He should not sit back waiting for management to come to him with personnel problems. He should bury himself in the activities of his government. He must recognize problems before they become tough and have at hand answers for ready application. If, for ex-

ample, a reduction of government income is in sight, he ought to have worked out for the benefit of the governor or mayor the whole strategy for reduction of personnel. If he keeps ahead of the game this way, he will become an active part of the management team. Remember that in the Army, the G-1 is one of the commanding general's foremost, intimate advisors, and personnel is a part of every operating plan. An Army division which put its G-1 under an independent commission off in some "hidden valley" would soon lose all of its battles. Government cannot function with true effectiveness until it brings personnel policy into the heart of the administrative picture.

Personnel Man Must Be Part of Management. The personnel man must live with management and be a part of it. He should have some sort of social connection with management people on his own level. You cannot become a part of a group unless you know the people intimately and know their problems. The personnel man must be "nosey" about operating programs and operating goals.

Need to De-emphasize Paper Work. The personnel man who wants to be part of the management team must try to minimize his clerical and record routines. When I was a personnel man in the federal government, I was really ashamed of the number of so-called personnel people whose only real activity was clerical. "Processing" of personnel papers had become an end instead of a means. No personnel man will be part of the management team if he is content with a rubber stamp, processing sort of agency.

Need to Improve Quality of Service. The personnel man must learn one of the hardest things for any of us to learn: that his greatest satisfaction lies not in building up himself nor his department, but in building up the administration of his governmental jurisdiction as a whole. His test of effective work then is not whether he is the best publicized personnel administrator, nor whether he has the largest number of personnel employees, but the much more difficult and important task of being sure that good people are doing government's jobs well in his jurisdiction.

There is still so much to do in real public personnel work of a positive sort. Most governmental jurisdictions are far behind the better businesses in securing cheerful, competent, courteous employees. The turnover is high and not always for financial reasons. Forceful top administrators are not developed. Overstaffing and overorganization are rampant. Many of these problems could be helped by positive personnel programs, by better training, better employee relations, and better in-service activities. But little of this can be accomplished if personnel does not become part of the management team.

Summary

The problems of government are going to be more, not less important in the future. One of the greatest problems of government is going to be that of getting the necessary tasks done without overwhelming the country with high governmental expenditures. The public personnel man can be one of the most important people in helping his fellow-citizens accomplish this goal. But he can do it only if he will be part of the management team. To do this, he must be realistic; organize his staff on a basis comparable to those he serves; be a leader, not a wallflower; live with management; minimize clerical activities; and concentrate on building up the quality of service in his jurisdiction.

Building a Productive Civilian Work Force in the Department of Defense

James M. Mitchell

Administrative experience in the Department of Defense has demonstrated that the problems of "bigness" make inapplicable many of the practices and policies that work well in smaller organizations. In the area of civilian personnel management, however, the Department has found that its huge size has served only to highlight the need for careful application of established sound principles of personnel relations if individual initiative and effort are not to be stifled. Department of Defense personnel policy emphasizes that productive efficiency and more defense for less cost ". . . can be built only upon a recognition of the individual as the basis of the organization and through application of sound principles of human relations. . . ." With this cardinal principle in mind, the Department has established vigorous civilian personnel programs designed to raise productive efficiency to the highest possible peak. Particular emphasis is given to improving the capabilities of supervisors at all levels, to giving employees the training they need to perform at top efficiency, and to providing supervisors with adequate tools with which to recognize and encourage superior work performance and high morale.

Composition of Civilian Work Force

The importance of civilian personnel administration in any program aimed at improving the productive efficiency of the Department of Defense cannot be overemphasized. Although a "military organization," the Department of Defense is one of the world's largest employers of civilians. There is approximately one civilian for every three men in uniform, and civilians occupy key positions at all levels of the Department. With over 1,200,000 employees, more than one half the total employment of the federal government, the Department has a civilian work force almost three times as large as that of the largest private corporation in the world. The work that civilians perform ranges all the way from the usual industrial type occupations found in such establishments as shipyards and supply depots to work of a nature entirely peculiar to military departments, such as military intelligence and evaluation of the effectiveness of weapons. Women comprise about 25 percent of this large civilian work force. In the so-called "blue-collar" work force there are all of the usual trades and crafts as well as jobs that include everything from Seamstress and Hod Carrier to Master Electronics Mechanic. In the "white-collar" category there are administrative, scientific, technical, and clerical positions of almost every type. Contract Specialist, Operations Analyst, Ordnance Engineer, Psychologist, Translator, are but a few of the myriad of occupations that exist in the Department's civilian work force. It has been estimated that over-all the Department uses about two-thirds of the skills employed by all of private enterprise.

These civilians are located in hundreds of installations in the United States and in almost every country in the world in numbers ranging from one solitary representative to over twenty-two thousand at such installations as Kelley Air Force Base, San Antonio, Texas. In addition to being the largest employer of civilians in the United States, the Department of Defense employs 66 percent of all federal employees outside the United States.

This large civilian work force results from the Department's policy of using civilians in all positions which do not re-

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quire the use of military personnel for reasons of training, security, or discipline. This policy of maximum possible use of civilians is based upon a number of vital considerations. Among the most important is the fact that the employment of civilians makes possible the maximum use of military personnel for duties that are primarily military in nature and for which it is actually necessary to place a man in uniform. Equally important is the fact that, on the average, it costs appreciably less to do a job with a civilian employee than it does with a man in uniform. Use of civilians also helps the Department assure the continuity of administration and operation that is needed when military personnel are rotated to and from overseas and from post to post. In addition, many of the skills needed by the military departments, particularly those needed for large industrial and research activities, can only be obtained through employment of civilians.

Making the most effective use of these civilian employees and integrating them with military personnel into a close-working, efficient team presents a challenging and complex job of personnel administration. The manner in which the Department has organized itself to cope with this unique job reflects a record of progress of which the Department can be justly proud.

Organization for Personnel Management

The over-all organization of the Department for personnel management is based upon the principle of maximum decentralization to the lowest possible level—usually the commanding officer of an installation—of authority to hire, classify, promote, transfer, and separate employees. This authority is delegated within the limits of Civil Service Commission regulations and broad but clearly defined personnel policies and standards established in the Office of the Secretary of Defense and in the headquarters of the military services. Each of the military departments has its own personnel staff and issues its own personnel regulations within the broad policies outlined in the Directives issued by the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower and Personnel). Coordination on personnel policy matters is achieved through a Civilian Advisory Council, comprised of the civilian personnel directors of the three services and of the Office of the Secretary of Defense. This Council meets regularly, under the chairmanship of the Director of the Civilian Personnel Policy Division, Office of the Secretary of Defense, to discuss major policy matters. In view of the differing needs and organization problems of the services, no effort is made to develop uniform internal procedures for the three services. Instead, uniform standards and criteria that must be observed by all the services are developed on basic policy matters whenever they are determined to be desirable. The position of the Department of Defense on personnel matters involving relationships with other federal agencies, such as the Civil Service Commission, the Bureau of the Budget, the Department of State, and Congress also are worked out in consultation with the Civilian Advisory Council.

In addition to the personnel staffs located in the headquarters of the services, there are civilian personnel offices located at all field installations where sizable numbers of civilians are employed. General control over the personnel functions which these installation personnel offices conduct under their delegated authority is maintained by the headquarters of the military departments primarily through three basic means: (1) policies and regulations which the respective headquarters issue establishing clearly defined standards for personnel operations; (2) visits made periodically to each installation by survey teams or staff members from the headquarters to review compliance with the standards and to give assistance to field installations in developing their personnel programs; and (3) grievance appeal channels through which employees may appeal decisions reached on personnel actions and related matters at the installation level to higher headquarters.

Within this basic framework, the role of the civilian personnel office in the Department of Defense is to advise and help operating officials meet their personnel needs and solve their personnel problems. The personnel program is not regarded as

something that is carried on in a personnel office. It is a responsibility of all divisions of the organization and of all supervisors and operating officials.

Selection and Development of Supervisors

With this concept in mind, the activities of civilian personnel offices have been directed primarily at developing the ability of supervisors to carry out their personnel management responsibilities effectively and to establish and maintain a productive work force. Among the major steps which have been taken in this regard are:

1. The development of objective selection measures designed to assure the selection for supervisory positions of persons who have the ability to supervise.
2. Conduct of training programs to teach supervisors the principles of good supervisory practices.
3. Initiation of an active program in which personnel office specialists periodically visit supervisors on the job to help them avoid conditions that cause personnel problems as well as resolve those which have arisen.
4. Establishment of new foreman pay plans for "wage board" employees—for whom the Department has the authority to fix wages—that provide a differential between the pay of journeymen and the pay of supervisors which will justify holding the supervisor fully responsible for the exercise of good supervisory skills.

Careful selection of supervisors, based upon objective evaluation of supervisory potential as well as technical ability, is receiving increasing attention as the basic starting point of any program to improve the level of supervision. The Air Force recently has initiated use of a test battery which measures supervisory attitudes, supervisory interest, and supervisory judgment. Validation studies conducted on hundreds of Air Force supervisors in clerical, "blue-collar," and professional positions over a period of three years have shown that there is a strong relationship between high scores on this test battery and successful on-the-job supervisory performance. The battery is administered to all persons being considered for selection for entry into first and second level supervisory positions in the clerical and administrative categories, the first and second levels of foremen in the "blue-collar" categories, the first level positions in the professional and technical categories, and for certain other supervisory positions. The battery of tests is used, of course, in conjunction with other selection procedures. Test results are considered in making final selections along with findings arrived at through such other techniques as interviews and evaluation of experience, education, and prior work performance.

The Army is currently conducting research for the purpose of adapting similar tests which will aid in the selection of its civilian supervisors, and the Navy has operated a program for objective selection of its "blue-collar" supervisors for many years. In addition to interviews and evaluations of experience, the Navy procedure includes a supervisory judgment test that measures the candidate's understanding of relationships with people and the personnel responsibilities of supervisors. All employees who meet the minimum qualifications for the supervisory positions for which they desire to be considered are given an opportunity to compete and to be placed on a promotion list from which selections for future vacancies are made. Tests also are being used by the Navy for the selection of employees to fill some "white-collar" supervisory positions; further research is being conducted to explore the possibility of extending the use of tests in making selections for other Navy supervisory positions.

A second major step which has been taken to assure that supervisors are capable of carrying out their management responsibilities effectively is the highly developed series of supervisory training courses being conducted throughout the Department.

Typical of the type of systematic training given supervisors in the Department of Defense is the Army's three phase program consisting of an "Introduction to Supervision" course designed for new and inexperienced supervisors, a "Basic Supervisor Training" course to develop supervisors after they become more experienced

in their new responsibilities, and an "Advanced Supervisor Development" course for supervisors who have reached positions in which they are responsible for coordinating and controlling subordinate organizational units.

The introductory course covers such subjects as the general responsibilities of a supervisor, planning work operations, selecting employees, appraising performance, developing and motivating a work group. The course supplements on-the-job training and is designed to be given quickly after assignment of an employee to a supervisory job. It may also be modified for use with prospective supervisors prior to actual promotion to the positions for which they have been selected.

The "Basic Supervisor Training" consists of a series of conference training sessions which new supervisors are required to attend. More experienced supervisors also may be required to participate in some of these sessions when performance evaluations show they need it. The conferences which comprise the "Basic Supervisor Training" course cover in detail such areas as relationships on the job, communications, performance evaluation, employee training, job measurement, salary and wage administration, job safety and work improvement. Before a supervisor is advanced to a position requiring direction of the work of subordinate supervisors, efforts are made to assure that he has either successfully participated in all elements of the Basic Course or has demonstrated that he is performing satisfactorily in the aspects of his work in which he has not been trained.

The "Advanced Supervisor Development" training sessions are designed primarily for supervisors who have reached a position where they are responsible for coordinating and controlling subordinate organizational units. Among the subjects covered in this training are units on organizing, directing, controlling, and improving work operations. Considerable attention also is given to the fundamental contributions which industrial psychology is making to the improvement of job relations.

Technical Help Provided to Supervisors

Along with the careful selection and formal training of supervisors, Department civilian personnel officers are emphasizing their role of providing technical advice and assistance to supervisors. During World War II, there was a tendency for personnel offices to assume many personnel management responsibilities of the first-line supervisor and to confine contacts with supervisors to those instances when specific problems demanded them. This trend has been reversed. In its place, civilian personnel offices have assumed the more complex task of developing and assisting each supervisor in making his own decisions on problems of selection, training, grievances, utilization, placement, and other personnel management matters. This advisory role is carried out largely through on-the-job discussions with supervisors of the application of principles taught in training courses to the specific situations which exist in the supervisor's unit. Attention is focused on preventing personnel problems rather than waiting until they develop.

Pay Rates for Supervisors

Having placed substantial authority and responsibility for personnel management on supervisors, the need was recognized to establish sufficient pay differentials between employees who hold supervisory positions and those who do not. No departmental action was possible with regard to the white-collar supervisory workers whose pay scales are fixed by Congress, but action has been taken to establish more adequate differentials for supervisors in the "blue-collar" work force of about 718,000 (as of 31 August, 1953) for whom the Secretaries of the military departments have the responsibility for fixing wages on an area by area basis. Initiation of new supervisory differential plans required the redefinition of many jobs and adjustment in the wages of thousands of employees. Through an intensive training program conducted to indoctrinate both classification technicians and supervisors, the transition to the new plan was accomplished without difficulty.

Institutes were conducted to train key

personnel in the installation and operation of the new plan, and these employees then returned to their installations and gave similar training to other technicians. In addition, materials were prepared for distribution and conferences were conducted in which operating officials and supervisors were informed of the background that led to the development of the new plan, how the plan operates, their part in making the plan work, and how their pay would be set under the plan. These measures, representative of the carefully planned way in which major changes in personnel policy are introduced in the Department, have resulted in general acceptance of the new plans and a minimum of dislocation to operations.

General Skills Training Programs

In areas of training other than that directed primarily at supervisory development, such as apprentice training and mechanical, clerical, and professional skills training, vigorous programs are being conducted to raise work performance to the highest possible level and to make available needed skills in shortage categories. The phenomenal increase in the complexity of military equipment and the constant changes and improvements that are being made in this equipment pose a major training problem in keeping employees abreast of new developments. From the once simple gun sights that had to be purchased, maintained, and operated, modern warfare has advanced through technological changes to fully electronic systems with intricate scanning devices and computer mechanisms. Complex technical skills are required to maintain and operate such equipment. Another factor contributing to the Department's huge training problem is the fact that there are no counterparts in civilian life for many of the jobs in the military service. It is almost impossible, for example, to hire fully qualified personnel for such jobs as aqua-fuel systems operator and guided missile engineer.

To keep a steady flow of skilled craftsmen available, each of the military departments long ago established apprentice training programs. Perhaps the leading apprentice program in the country is the one conducted in the Navy. To meet the Navy's future needs for highly skilled artisans, key employees and supervisors, there are more than 6,500 apprentices being trained in 56 trades in 34 shipyards, ordnance plants, air stations, and research laboratories. During their four-year term of apprenticeship, Navy apprentices perform productive work in the shops and at the same time receive a carefully planned, closely supervised course of instruction. The apprentice program includes both on-the-job training in the shops and academic training in the classroom in such subjects as mathematics, trade theory, trade drawing, and blueprint reading. Apprentices advance through four classes of apprenticeship after they have completed satisfactorily the minimum of 1872 hours of shop work and school instruction a year. Grades are given to apprentices quarterly on both shop and school work, and those who do not make satisfactory progress are immediately dropped from the program. Those who complete the program are a highly skilled group of workers upon whom the Navy depends to carry out much of the intricate trade work so essential to the success of its huge industrial operations.

Management Training

The area of executive development also is receiving increasing attention both at the intake point, to assure the recruitment of able young people capable of being advanced to key executive positions, and at the middle and top management levels. Through Junior Management Assistant training programs carefully selected college graduates and other qualified young men and women are brought into the military departments, given systematic training and then placed in positions offering opportunity for continued growth. Capable young people already working in the military departments also are given an opportunity to qualify for these programs. The training received is designed to give the employee an over-all orientation in the organization and mission of the department to which he is assigned, training in various phases of administration, on-the-job rotational assignments, and training

in a specialized skill in a regular assignment. Other programs involving rotational assignment, study at universities, and attendance at training courses are in operation to strengthen middle and top management. Considerable study is being given to the problems of executive development with a view to establishing improved programs at the middle and top management levels.

Professional Training

One area receiving special attention is the professional development of the Department's thousands of engineers and scientists. Attention has been focused on this area because it is recognized that in modern technological warfare much of our potential strength lies in sound research programs and serious problems have arisen from the severe shortages of qualified personnel available to do scientific research. The Department of Defense utilizes an estimated 50 percent of the research resources of the nation. To assure that these resources are effectively utilized and that the Department's scientists are kept abreast of current thinking and progress in special fields is a vital responsibility. Close cooperative relationships have been established in many areas with leading colleges and universities where courses are conducted by those universities for the Department's scientists. Sometimes these courses are conducted right on the installation; sometimes they are held on the university campus. For example, at the Air Force Flight Test Center, at Edwards Air Force Base, Edwards, California, where transonic and supersonic aircraft are tested, arrangements have been made with the University of California to provide advanced graduate level training on the base in aerodynamics, aeronautical engineering, and jet propulsion systems. Over one hundred scientific and engineering personnel of Edwards Air Force Base will participate in this training during the fiscal year 1954. In other areas, similar arrangements have been made with universities such as Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Harvard, Northeastern University, Boston University, Syracuse University, Florida University, Ohio State University, and many others to conduct courses directly related to the research activities being carried on by the Department.

Employee-Management Relations

In the area of employee-management relations, the Department has progressive policies designed to create satisfactory working conditions for its civilian work force, to encourage individual initiative, and to develop a smoothly operating team relationship between military and civilian personnel. The success with which these sound principles are applied and the type of recognition and motivation which is given employees depends to a large extent on the relations between supervisor and employee that exist from the lowest to the highest level of the organization. For that reason, the Department has centered its employee relations activities and policies around the supervisor-employee relationship. As indicated earlier, careful attention is given to the selection of supervisors to assure that the person selected will be able to get along well with his employees; the supervisor is given careful training in human relations; he is given the authority with which to carry out his supervisory function; and the advisory role of the personnel office is stressed to avoid any possibility of the personnel office getting between the supervisor and his employees.

Supporting this relationship are promotion-from-within programs, which provide opportunities for employees to be considered for vacancies for which they qualify; incentive award programs, through which exceptional employees may win both cash and honorary recognition; and programs designed to give employees, individually and in groups, the opportunity to express their ideas and complaints freely; and a performance appraisal program that emphasizes letting employees know what their strong and weak points are and how they may improve.

Incentive Award Programs

The very active incentive award programs which exist in the Department have proved to be outstandingly successful in encouraging initiative and superior effort

on the part of employees. These programs provide monetary awards to employees based on the net dollar savings resulting from their suggestions for improvement, or upon outstanding individual or group performance of distinct and measurable monetary benefit. Provision also is made for honorary awards for outstanding job achievements which may or may not result in measurable savings.

Through suggestions and improvements initiated by employees, the Department estimates that it saved nearly 45 million dollars in the fiscal year 1953 alone! 29 million dollars were saved through employee suggestions concerning matters not directly connected with the suggesters' job responsibilities. There were approximately 143,700 such suggestions, 23 percent of which were adopted. 16 million dollars were saved through improvements suggested by employees in connection with their work assignments but of such a nature as to be far beyond the normal requirements of their jobs. The success of these programs is widely recognized in industry and government and repeated awards have been given the military departments by the National Association of Suggestion Systems.

The ideas and improvements which are received through these programs range all the way from the little ideas and minor improvements which, as a whole, make a sizable impact on efficiency, to the ideas which provide solutions to major problems and result in savings of millions of dollars or tremendous improvements in quality. One employee during the last fiscal year saved the Air Force over $3,000,000 and the Army over $1,700,000 by developing a method of doubling the circuit capacity of Signal Corps long-range radio equipment. The employee's idea made unnecessary the installation of needed additional expensive transmitters and receivers and expanded a 6-channel frequency system to a 12-channel system. During the same year a civilian employee of the Navy was primarily responsible for ideas which resulted in the redesign of the flight deck and of the operating arrangements on the Navy's super-carrier U. S. S. Forrestal, now in process of construction, at a saving of at least three million dollars. Not only have this employee's ideas resulted in the new and revolutionary development of landing aircraft aboard ship on an angled landing deck but they have resulted in significant improvements in catapult operations and in the servicing of the flight deck and hanger spaces. In this same year, an employee of the Air Force, working in a subordinate capacity in a field procurement office, on his own initiative and in the face of serious administrative obstacles, determinedly sought to convince the representatives of western railroads that freight rates for tow-tractors, established by the railroad's Classification Committee, were improper and that tow-tractors should be classified in a different category from automobiles and transported at a lower rate. The employee's argument proved so sound that the Committee agreed, freight rates were dropped by 50 percent on the carload, and the Air Force saved nearly half a million dollars.

The value of many of the ideas received and placed in effect through the Incentive Awards Program cannot be measured in dollars. Many soldiers, sailors, airmen and marines, for example, will walk around on two good feet because of the new cold-weather boots developed by two civilian employees of the Navy. These men ingeniously developed boots with layers of rubber separated by water that protect feet in temperatures as low as 40 degrees below zero. To prove the correctness of their theories they not only developed these boots, but one of them tested the boots in 40 degree below zero temperatures in the face of medical predictions that his feet would freeze solid.

To keep these valuable programs going and more and more employees participating, promotional materials are issued continuously in the form of payroll inserts, posters, stories in newsletters, and through other media.

Lines of Communication

Solicitation of the ideas and suggestions of the Department's employees is not confined, of course, to the suggestion and award programs. The importance of interchange of views and the free expression

of opinions and complaints through all available means is fully recognized. Consultation with employee unions, shop committees, and advisory councils are conducted on a continuous basis. Employees are free to express their opinions through these groups or as individuals. Every effort is made to settle the problems of individuals or unions informally and at the lowest possible level. When solutions cannot be worked out at the local level, channels are provided through which review may be obtained at higher levels. In some instances matters of serious concern to individual employees or employee groups may be carried all the way to the Secretary of the military department concerned for final decision.

The opinions of employees also are sought, when the situation calls for it, through attitude surveys. Many such surveys have been conducted at the installation level and valuable information has been obtained on employee reactions to personnel policies, to supervisory practices, and to proposed courses of action. To prevent duplication of effort in this field and to assure high quality surveys, the civilian personnel research branch of the Air Force is now developing a standardized survey questionnaire covering major areas of employee concern such as supervision, job content, basic management policies, working conditions, and general job satisfaction. In addition, a simplified guide, in lay language, is being developed to help commanding officers conduct surveys and interpret their results. The standardized survey questionnaire is so designed that it may be used in whole or in part, or be supplemented by questions at the local level, depending upon the needs of the installation conducting the survey.

Health and Safety Programs

In providing working conditions designed to encourage maximum productivity, the safety and health of employees is stressed, particularly in the large industrial-type operations such as shipyards and ordnance depots. The Navy is especially proud of its safety record, having in the fiscal year 1953 reduced its civilian lost-time accident rate to 3.53 accidents per million workhours, the lowest point in its history. Comparison of the Navy's record with the latest national averages available from the National Safety Council (8.40 lost-time accidents per million workhours during 1952) gives adequate testimony to the effectiveness of the Navy's safety program. The Navy's safety program emphasizes accident analysis, inspection, use of protective apparel and equipment, better "housekeeping," and continuous safety education. The Navy's vigorous program has resulted in repeated "Awards of Honor for Distinguished Service to Safety" from the National Safety Council during the World War II years and 1950 and 1952. The "Safety Review" published by the Navy's Office of Industrial Relations, has won six Certificates of Merit during the last seven years in National Safety Council contests.

Closely tied in with the Department's safety programs are the industrial medical programs operated by the medical services for both military and civilian personnel. These programs, in addition to providing for emergency medical care, stress the prevention of occupational disease or injury by inspection of work sites, control of the use of toxic chemicals and exposure to fumes, radiation, and other occupational hazards, and a continuing program of health education. The services of the medical department also are used to assure the proper placement and utilization of the Department's thousands of physically handicapped workers and to conduct periodic physical examinations when needed to insure continued job fitness and to diagnose occupational illness.

Wage Administration

In addition to operating large-scale personnel programs in the areas of supervisory selection and development, training, incentive awards, safety and health, the Department operates one of the largest and most unique programs of wage setting in existence. Wage rates are established and maintained for over 700,000 "blue-collar" employees spread throughout communities in the entire United States and overseas on the basis of the prevailing rates in the particular area in which each installation is located. Wage surveys are

normally conducted in each area once a year, although surveys may be conducted even more frequently when significant locality wage rate changes are known to have taken place. In these surveys, information is obtained on rates paid for key jobs in the wage scale from representative industrial and utility companies located within the general geographic area from which employees are recruited. In gathering these data, careful attention is given not only to the comparability of jobs but to reflecting bonuses, incentives, and shift differentials in arriving at rate determinations. On the basis of the data collected on these key jobs, a schedule is developed for all positions at the installation. Employees and union representatives are given an opportunity to participate in the planning of surveys, to express their views on the manner in which the survey is to be conducted and on the problems involved.

Over-all, significant progress has been made in developing a sound and progressive civilian personnel program in the Department of Defense, but there remain many areas of major importance in which improvement is needed. Some of these areas are outside the direct control of the Department and must be approached through the Congress, the Civil Service Commission, or the Bureau of the Budget; others can be worked out within the Department itself.

Some of the major problems inevitably arise out of the existence of two separate pay systems within the Department, one controlled by Congress, the other by the Department itself. Not only has the existence of two systems created many grey areas between the two which need to be clarified, but, in many instances, it has been impossible to adhere within an installation to the principle of equal pay for equal work. Internally, also, further attention needs to be given to differences in the operation of the Navy's wage setting procedures and those of the Army and Air Force. In addition, special problems have arisen out of the rigid nature of the salary structure established by the Classification Act and the statutory limitations which have been placed upon the number of positions which may be established in the $11,000 to $14,800 range. In an organization as large and complex as the Department of Defense, more flexibility is needed in establishing positions of this type. The Department is seeking such authority from the Congress as well as Congressional clarification as to which jobs are covered by the Classification Act and which are not.

Overseas Personnel Administration

Another major problem which currently is receiving attention is that of overseas personnel administration. At the present time, employees working overseas are not in the competitive service. They are employed noncompetitively by the Department and do not acquire civil service status or eligibility for other positions that are in the competitive service. This creates problems both in attracting the best qualified employees for overseas service and in rotating employees between overseas positions and jobs in the competitive service in the United States. The Department has recommended to the Civil Service Commission a plan, now under study by that agency, for bringing positions overseas into the competitive service. Another phase of the Department's overseas personnel problems arises out of the fact that other federal agencies with employees overseas operate under differing systems of pay and allowances. In cooperation with the Bureau of the Budget and the White House, the Department is endeavoring to work out a more uniform pattern that will be fair to all federal employees located overseas and at the same time meet the needs of the individual departments.

More progress also is needed in the formulation of fundamental policies governing the employment of foreign nationals, including the development of sound criteria as to when foreign nationals should be employed directly by the United States and when they should be employed by means of labor contracts with foreign governments. The contract method, whereby the United States government pays the foreign government for labor services, has been found to be practical in many areas. Under this arrangement the employees involved become employees of the host gov-

ernment rather than of the United States, and adjustment of employment conditions to local laws, customs and practices becomes more feasible. In other areas the direct-hire method has been found to be more suitable although difficult problems arise due to statutory restrictions which make it impossible for the Department to comply with some of the laws, customs, and practices observed by the host government and private firms in the locality. The Department is now working with the Congress and the White House to resolve these problems.

Integrating Civilian and Military Jobs

Another continuing problem area which needs further attention is the practical application of the Department's policy of making the fullest use of civilians in positions which do not require military personnel for reasons of training, security, or discipline. A good job has been done in integrating military and civilian personnel into a closely working team and in resolving the difficult problem of operating two career systems side-by-side, one for military and one for civilians, each with its own special requirements and differing statutory bases. Further progress must be made, however, in establishing criteria governing which jobs should be civilian and which should be military and in resolving problems arising out of the conflicts in the requirements of the two systems.

Training Career Employees

Development of a more systematic and comprehensive program of career development in the Department also is needed to assure a steady flow of capable, well-qualified and carefully trained civilian personnel for key positions throughout the organization. Development of such a program will do much to enhance the attractiveness of civilian employment in the Department of Defense as a career and will help to retain capable employees in whom the Department has a sizable investment in training and practical experience.

Improving Incentive Program

Successful as the incentive awards programs are, there are many problems in connection with their operation that must be resolved. Some of these problems are legislative in nature, others are administrative. The Congress in enacting separate legislation for "white-collar" and "blue-collar" employees created a number of inequities in the treatment of the two groups that should be corrected through passage of a single integrated law covering awards for all employees. Administratively, the Department needs to give more attention to means by which these programs can serve more effectively as actual stimuli to better performance rather than as awards given after the fact. There is a need to further decentralize and streamline procedures to assure more prompt action on award recommendations, to encourage supervisors to make fuller use of awards as a means of encouraging superior performance, and to place additional emphasis on improving group effort by making fuller use of group awards as opposed to isolated awards to individuals.

These and many other complex problems, including further integration of the policies and programs of the military departments and the encouragement of wider use of common facilities, present a challenging opportunity to increase steadily the efficiency of one of the federal government's most vital activities and at the same time enhance its attractiveness as the world's largest employer of civilians.

Sick Leave Control Through a System of Incentives

Robert F. Wikle

Having observed the operation of its sick leave regulations over a ten-year period, the Civil Service Commission of the County of Wayne, Michigan, believes it has developed a program that controls more effectively the number of days taken off. The program has kept sick leave from rising and in some instances has reduced total absences for illness. This result has been obtained by the use of positive incentives directed toward the establishment of good individual practices in regard to the use of sick leave.

The Wayne County Program

The County's first comprehensive sick leave regulations were adopted in 1943 when a merit system was inaugurated. Patterned after the accepted practices of other public personnel agencies, they provided that employees could earn one day of sick leave for each completed month of service, that sick leave could not be used until the end of six months of employment, and that unused sick leave could be accumulated up to a maximum of 100 days. To get the program started, the regulations permitted the departments to go back five years on the same basis, provided that the actual days taken off would be deducted from the total, in order to establish an initial bank upon which to draw.

The Commission foresaw that some restraint must be applied in this plan and decided on a novel incentive to keep the number of sick leave days at a low level. It permitted employees who did not use more than five days during the year to add three days to their vacation leave. By this means it felt that the sick leave days actually taken could be held to a minimum.

The Commission also provided that sick leave could be used for attendance at funerals and to care for illnesses of members of the immediate family. These provisions have remained substantially the same for ten years.

Two important changes have been made in the plan. In 1949, the limit to the number of sick leave days that could be accumulated was removed. At the end of 1951, the Commission jointly with the Board of County Supervisors approved a plan for the payment of one-half of the unused sick leave time. Such payment was to be made on separation to employees having completed four or more years of service.

The Commission feels that the responsibility for the detailed operation of the plan should lie mainly with the department, and, insofar as possible, it should operate with a minimum of supervision. With the instigation of the provision for the payment of one-half of unused time, it has begun to audit the attendance and leave records of employees requesting payment.

At the end of the ninth year and before the payment plan was begun, a sample of the best available figures from all departments in the County indicated that during this period an average of 6.8 days had been used by each employee during a year. This tentative figure indicates that the regulations had been effective in keeping sick leave at a low figure and that the average was only slightly higher than the five-day limit for earning extra annual leave.

Sick Leave Records Analyzed

In order to learn the entire effect of the regulations and to substantiate the above figure, the records of several departments were examined and analyzed. First, the records of 72 present employees from a department located outside the metropolitan area and having a total of 250 employees were selected and studied. They represent all occupational groups in the department and include all persons employed 12 or more years.

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Two underlying principles were soon apparent. The rate at which sick leave time was granted was a liberal one, and the accumulated sick leave banks were necessary for the employee's economic well-being. For the five-year period prior to the establishment of civil service regulations governing leave for illness, the average number of paid days of absence for sickness for the long service employees was 2.7 per employee per year. From this figure and the above County-wide figure, it is clear that the rate of 12 days per year, while less generous than some plans, exceeds the needs of most County employees.

The excess leave days quickly built up to good sized banks once the plan was operating, but at the same time the use of sick leave of more than 20 days a year also increased. A little more than one-third of the long service employees used an average of 31 days during one of the last ten years. In this department there is little doubt that these extended absences were for true illness and that sick leave accumulations were needed to prevent severe losses of income.

The records of the long service group were also analyzed to determine yearly trends. The first year after the adoption of the regulations, the average number of days used was 3.7. This increased to 4.3 in 1945, coinciding with the termination of the war and the availability of replacements in the department. In 1951, actual sickness increased the sick leave to an unusually high point of 6.9 days. In 1952 the average dropped to 4.6 days.

The year to year variation shown in the table below indicates the tendency for these employees to use increasing amounts of sick leave. This upward trend appears to parallel growing sick leave accumulations except where the peaks of actual sickness affect the relationship. The increase is unrelated to age which has a correlation with a five-year average of sick leave absences of .04, very nearly a chance relationship.

For all employees in the 250 employee department, sick leave during the last four years showed the following characteristics: The average number of days used for personal illness (4.9) was very close to the

Trends of Sick Leave of the Long Service Group

Year	*Median*	*Third Quartile*	*% At and Below Five*
1943	1.1	4.2	81
1944	.5	3.8	85
1945	2.3	5.3	77
1946	2.0	4.4	80
1947	3.0	7.3	72
1948	2.7	7.0	71
1949	2.1	5.5	77
1950	2.7	5.3	78
1951	4.3	7.4	67
1952	3.3	6.0	75

Composition of the Long Service Group

	Men	*Women*
Number	37	35
Age at End of Study	50	49.8
Average Sick Leave for Last Five Years	3.2	6.5

amount used by the long service group. Each year an additional 0.23 was used for attendance at funerals and 0.21 days for the care of sick members of the family. It is of particular interest to note that employees working a 48-hour work-week used an average 1.3 days more than employees working a 40-hour work-week, although sick leave is granted only for absences during the first five days of the week.

Departments and divisions of departments differ considerably in the amount of sick leave used. The total average sick leave, including time allowed for other than personal illness, for three divisions of another department were 6.7, 7.7 and 9.1 days for the nine-year period ending in 1951. The maintenance division used less time than either of the office divisions. The office division having a hard and exacting work schedule had the highest amount of leave.

In a new department, during the same years the sick leave was 5.2 days, and in a department established during the depression it was an average 7.8 days. Altogether, the three divisions and two departments used 7.5 days per employee per year.

Wayne County Compared with Other Governments and Industry

In a survey of industry in 1947, the total lost time for all reasons was found to be 9.6 days per worker per year. Of this time, 6.5 days were lost because of nonindustrial accidents and illnesses and an additional 0.6 day was lost through work injuries. Governmental jurisdictions variously report the amount of sick leave from an average three days or less to ten days and upward per year. Many small agencies in Michigan estimate their sick leave to be near the lower figure.

Some private companies report that the postwar downward trend of absenteeism is leveling off. The United States Public Health Service finds that the rate of sickness among workers has risen each year since 1949.

An attempt to compare these figures and trends with County data in exact terms is not possible because of the many variables which are either unreported or unknown.[1] For this reason the most satisfactory estimate of the effect of incentives is by an internal comparison of figures.

Sick Leave for Vacation Provides Incentive

That the extra three vacation days act to keep the number of sick leave days used at a low figure is evident from a number of sources. In a 40-employee department, the amount of sick leave decreased regularly over a period of four years. The percentage of employees using five or less days being higher each subsequent year as follows: 1944–48%; 1945–52%; 1946–63%; and 1947–85%. The three divisions referred to earlier, while showing marked increases in leave during certain years, returned to former levels for a fairly constant rate of sick leave over the period of the survey.

Typical of the pattern of sick leave days used is the accompanying distribution from these same departments. During 1950 and 1951 more than half of the employees used five days or less while the remainder ranged to thirty and above. Twelve percent used no sick leave days. Five percent used one day and about the same percent used two days. An increasingly larger percentage used three and four days, and 15 percent used five days per year. At six days there is a drop to almost nothing, followed by a second distribution skewed toward the upper end.

Sick Leave in Three Departments

No. of Days	*No. of Employees* 1950	1951
20 and up	19	23
19	0	2
18	3	7
17	6	12
16	1	5
15	11	7
14	5	13
13	7	10
12	7	5
11	7	14
10	11	10
9	10	14
8	14	11
7	5	10
6	5	6
5	51	52
4	24	34
3	30	29
2	19	13
1	17	13
0	31	42

The half of the employees using five or less days were motivated to do so by their desire to limit the number of days used. Were it not for this limit, the number would range upward to some unknown figure. An estimate can be made of the amount of sick leave which would otherwise have been used by projecting upward the top half of a normal distribution which has been cut in the middle by an arbitrarily imposed limit of five days. Such an estimate indicates that the County is benefiting from its program in these three departments to the extent of about 18 percent over the number of extra vacation days granted.

[1] The National Industrial Conference Board abandoned a national absentee index in World War II after about two years, primarily because "absence rates collected on a broad scale for the purpose of intercompany comparisons are not applicable in specific situations."

Some Abuses of Sick Leave

When the sick leave regulations were first adopted, accumulations were limited to 100 days. This portion of the regulations did not have any practical consequence for several years until accumulations reached the maximum. The result was that some employees began to use the days over the maximum as they were earned. To many employees, sick leave privileges were earned in the same manner as were salaries, earned according to a formula based on the length of employment. Although to be used under certain circumstances, they were felt to be accrued benefits which should not be taken away arbitrarily. The increased administrative attention necessary to police employees of long service and the negative manner in which employees reacted to the limitation were factors in the decision to permit unlimited accumulations of leave.

Meanwhile a new abuse was beginning to cut into the number of employees on the job. Those employees about to retire were taking all of their accumulated sick leave before being placed on pension. Such practice was generally bolstered by sufficient foundation in fact to make it difficult to deny the leave and often there was considerable sympathy for it by the departmental supervisors.

By 1951 increased sick leave use had become a matter of concern. At the end of that year, the Commission jointly with the Board of County Supervisors adopted a plan to pay for one-half of accumulated sick leave on separation. The effect of including only persons who had worked for a minimum of four years was to limit the benefit to about half of the employees separated from the County. At the end of the first year, 137 employees had been paid for half of an average 26⅓ days per employee.

Is There a Sick Leave Pattern?

In other studies of absenteeism, it has been noted that the highest amount was on Mondays and Fridays, or Saturdays if the employees worked on that day. The effects of illness which had accelerated the use of sick leave during 1951 in several departments previously reported on, had not appeared to subside in 1952 although averages were near or slightly below the figures of previous years. Therefore, in order to establish the effect of the total program on absences due to sickness, representative groups in a 2000 employee department and a 1500 employee department were studied. In the former department the groups included old and new employees in the same occupation, while the group in the latter department was composed of long service employees in several occupations. In this department, most absences occurred on Thursday. Monday was third in order, and Friday fourth.

In the 2000 employee department, most absences occurred on Thursday also, while Monday was next in order. Since the day off is distributed over the week, the difference in amount of sick leave taken off is minimized. On Saturday there are approximately half of the absences for sickness that there are on other days of the week, although this is partly the result of the method of scheduling work.

It should be noted that among the men, the Saturday following payday has no more absences than on alternate Saturdays. On Fridays which are paydays, the number of absences shrinks to half of the alternate Fridays. From this it appears that among the male employees, the illnesses which motivate sick leave are not those that render the employee incapable of performing his work.

For female employees in the same department, the largest percentage of sick leave absences occur on Thursdays and Fridays followed closely by Mondays. When an analysis is made of the sick leave in relation to the employee's day off, the first and third days afterward are the most frequently used for sick leave. Inquiry reveals that female employees are pressed by duties of the home which are stronger than the desire to maintain records of low sick leave.

While paid absences from work may be approved for reasons of illness, to classify all such absences as "sick leave" can be a careless use of the term. The true causes may vary from personal reasons which are not entirely apparent to the employee to

Sick Leave in Relation to the Day of the Week
(Percent)

	Monday	*Tuesday*	*Wednesday*	*Thursday*	*Friday*	*Saturday*	*Number*	*Average Sick Leave*
1500 Employee Department	19.8	17.7	20.8	23.1	18.6	—	190	2.2
2000 Employee Dept.								
Men-Payday Week	8.3	8.0	9.4	8.2	5.4*	5.2	205	6.5
Men-Alternate Wk.	10.5	10.3	9.1	10.9	9.3	5.3		
Total	18.8	18.3	18.5	19.1	14.7	10.5		
Women	18.8	17.6	16.9	19.2	19.2	8.3	130	7.2
Women in relation	*First*	*Second*	*Third*	*Fourth*	*Fifth*	*Sixth*		
to day off	19.4	16.9	20.4	15.9	16.7	10.7		

* Payday.

distortions of the facts. Reasons are numerous and sometimes difficult to determine. Authorities on the subject include attitude toward work, geographic location of the work, the personnel program in general, and the condition of the labor market among the reasons for such absences.

The difficulty of determining the degree of illness permissible for granting sick leave and the difficulty of determining actual facts must frequently result in the supervisor accepting the employee's statement on face value. In such circumstances the employee will be the one who decides that sick leave will be allowed, and taking it will depend on whatever reasons the employee feels are important to himself.

Summary

The Wayne County program is believed to be a practical and effective method of controlling sick leave.

First, the three extra days of vacation granted for not using more than five days of sick leave meshes well with the annual leave regulations. Annual leave which is granted at the rate of one day per month permits the employee to accumulate sufficient leave days for a vacation of two weeks and two days at the end of the year. To the employee the extra three days which makes a full three week vacation are a clearly worth-while benefit.

Secondly, to the employee a limitation on the number of days which can be accumulated, however reasonable from a management point of view, acts to arbitrarily deny him of a benefit. It is measurably to his self-interest to find a means of using such sick leave before it is lost. No logic can convince him otherwise. The removal of limits to the amount of sick leave accumulation is in the direction of reserving sick leave for its prime purpose.

Finally, a basic economic desire is enlisted by the partial payment for unused sick leave to the extent that an employee is motivated by the hope of future gain. Payment for one-half of the unused sick leave days is of sufficient importance to make the employee pause and consider the cost of taking time for which there is no true need, if not to scheme to avoid any possible lost time.

As individual sick leave is reduced below previous averages, half of each day gained benefits the County. This provision also cuts across other methods of controlling sick leave and acts to decrease the number of days both above and below five. It has the greatest effect when the need becomes greater in a period when sick leave accumulations have grown.

Basic to the program of positive incentives is the reward to the employee who has been conscientious in his attendance. The employee benefits automatically and in proportion to the effort put forth. The plan is clear, generous, and certain. No employee can be unmindful of its worth to himself or be unaffected by its positive appeal.

Federal Position Classification—A Tool for the Budget Officer

Monroe F. Day

THE CONCEPT of usefulness of position classification is not new. It appears, however, that it is only recently that the concept of use has been stressed.[1] In the opinion of the writer, this stress has been very limited and represents only what should be the initial steps toward full utilization of the tool.

In what ways may position classification serve as a working tool in the federal budget process? Are the claims set forth by proponents of classification valid when examined under present-day budget procedures? To what extent is position classification an aid in budgeting, if at all?

The answer to the first question may be stated briefly. The major uses of position classification in budget administration are generally regarded as follows:[2]

1. To develop cooperative relations among officials.
2. To establish budgetary controls.
3. To present requests for funds.
4. To expand the practice of lump-sum appropriation instead of providing funds for personal services by direct statutory lists.

The uses of classification in the closely related field of fiscal administration are generally proclaimed thusly:

1. To provide the base for pay plans.
2. To distinguish between grade and salary advancement plans.
3. To grant equitable salary treatment to formerly excepted employees brought under the system for the first time.
4. To contribute toward the accomplishment of proper personnel actions which will avoid embarrassing salary refunds or withholdings.

The answers to the last two questions "Are the claims made for classification valid?" and "Is classification an aid in budgeting?" were found, in part, by a survey of budget officers themselves wherein claims were checked against actual practice. All of the uses claimed of position classification in budgeting were not listed because of a desire to restrict the scope of the study in the belief that this would improve the quality and quantity of the response.

The top budget officers in five agencies in the Washington, D. C. area participated in the survey. The agencies are as follows: Department of the Interior, Department of the Navy, Department of Commerce, Department of Agriculture, and Veterans Administration. The budget officers were chiefs of the budget function at the departmental level of the five agencies named, or were in charge of the budget program in fifteen of the component bureaus.

Civil Service versus Operating Titles

From an historical standpoint, it may be noted that Fred Telford many years ago recorded that it was the need to standardize titles which brought about the original installation of position classification in the United States by the City of Chicago around 1909 or 1910. This need generally has been present in all subsequent instances where position classification systems have been established.

The Classification Act of 1949, Section 401 (c) of Title IV, carries the congressional stipulation that official class titles established by standards of the Civil Service Commission *shall* be used for person-

[1] William E. Mosher, J. Donald Kingsley, and O. Glenn Stahl, *Public Personnel Administration* (3rd ed.; New York: Harper and Brothers, 1950), p. 210.

[2] See Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, *Position Classification in the Public Service* (Chicago: Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1941), pp. 64-67.

• **Monroe F. Day is Assistant Chief, Classification Branch, U.S. Bureau of Reclamation. During most of the war period he headed up classification activities for the Department of the Interior in the Chicago area.**

nel, *budget,* and fiscal purposes. However, a later law, the Budget and Accounting Procedures Act of 1950, amended Section 204 of the Budget and Accounting Act, 1921, so as to require that the budget document be accompanied by information as to personal services in the same manner and form as in the budget for the fiscal year 1950. The budget for the fiscal year 1950 was prepared during the calendar year 1948 and transmitted to the Congress in January 1949, prior to the passage of the Classification Act. The instructions for the 1950 budget required the use of operating titles. Actually, both Civil Service and operating titles are found in the budget document under present practice.

How do the budget officers feel about using Civil Service and operating titles in the budget process? For example, do they prefer Civil Service titles such as Procurement Officer GS-12 and Safety Engineer GS-12, or operating titles such as Chief, Procurement Division GS-12 and Regional Safety Engineer GS-12?

An overwhelming majority, or approximately three-fourths of the respondents, felt that the operating titles contributed more to understanding in the budget process than the use of Civil Service titles. Some minor expression was given that the Civil Service titles made the greater contribution in lower grades, but that the operating titles were of more significance in the higher grades, "especially from GS-14 up." Slightly more than 25 percent reported that in their estimation the Civil Service titles contributed as much, if not more, than other titles.

A related study has indicated that closer collaboration with position classifiers on titling might bring about an understanding which could change the current preference of budget officers for operating titles over Civil Service titles. This study, covering the same agencies listed above, disclosed that budget analysts only infrequently called upon position classifiers for assistance in establishing uniform titles for use in budget preparation.[3]

[3] Monroe F. Day, *A Survey of the Federal Position Classification System as a Tool of Management: Uses and Operation* (The American University Library, 1952), pp. 164-165.

Use Made of Civil Service Pay Roll Titles

We have observed that Congress has required, and subsequently relinquished the strict requirement, that Civil Service titles be used for budget purposes. We have also been made aware of the preference of budget officers to use operating rather than Civil Service titles. One may wonder, then, whether this preference of use prevails in actual practice.

To arrive at this answer, inquiry was made of each respondent as to what extent official Civil Service class titles, which were being used in his particular agency for position classification and pay roll activities, were actually being used in budget preparation. As a result, exactly two-thirds of the respondents reported a high frequency rate in which official class titles were being used in budget preparations, and one-third stated that a low frequency rate of "none" or "very little" was made of the Civil Service titles. While the latter group represents the minority, nevertheless, it constitutes a substantial one.

Trend in Use of Titles

In view of current instructions on position titling from the Bureau of the Budget, it is not surprising that approximately three-fourths of the respondents indicated there was no tendency to use Civil Service titles more than in past years. Only one-fifth reported there was a tendency to use the Civil Service titles more often.

It was disclosed, in the first part of this study, that approximately 25 percent of the respondent budget officers felt the class titles at all grade levels were adequate. A closer examination may disclose that the Civil Service titles can meet the needs of everyone engaged in preparing budgets.

Insuring Will of Congress

Writers have proclaimed for years that in budgetary administration it is necessary to establish a means of control to insure that the will of the appropriating body in authorizing positions of certain kinds and/or numbers, will be carried out. The survey revealed that more than nine-tenths of the responding budget officers agreed with this proposition and felt that some control was necessary. It was also disclosed

that slightly more than half felt there was a high frequency rate at which it was necessary to establish such control. Slightly less than half indicated a low rate at which this occurred.

Having verified the fact that it is necessary to establish such control, let us consider whether position classification can make a contribution to it. Is there a need *for stronger controls* (to insure that the will of the appropriating body in authorizing kinds and numbers of positions will be carried out) which will require closer collaboration between budget and classification officers? A preponderant majority of two-thirds felt there was no need whatsoever for stronger controls that would require closer collaboration. On the other hand, it appears significant in this instance that slightly more than one-fourth reported a need, with one-fifth expressing "a great need" for closer collaboration.

Position Control Organization Picture

Many of us are aware of the claim made for the use of position classification, through furnishing titles and grades, in giving a position control organization picture of different operating units in order to facilitate comparison. Slightly more than nine-tenths of the budget officers reported that use was being made of titles and grades for this purpose. Almost three-fourths reported they took advantage of this tool of management at a high frequency rate. No one indicated a total disregard of the use.

Occupied Positions

Slightly more than nine-tenths, or 93⅓ percent, indicated that it would aid budget officers in their preparation of estimates if position classifiers made known to them what occupied positions were likely to be classified higher or lower within the year. There was an exact balance between the number who felt this information would aid very much and those who felt it would help only a little.

There appears to be a need for greater collaboration between the budget officers and the position classifiers in making known what positions may change grade levels. This feeling was registered by slightly less than 90 percent. There was an equal division between the number who felt "a lot" greater collaboration was needed, and those who reported "a little."

Vacancy Positions

Vacancy positions are shown in federal budgets at the entrance salary rates of their grades. On the other hand, they actually may be filled by reassignment or by transfer of employees already in that grade and at a salary rate achieved through within-grade promotions or other means.

The question was therefore raised as to whether this situation lessened the need for collaboration in budgeting between budget officers and classification officers. The respondent budget officers overwhelmingly stated that this situation did not lessen the need for collaboration. The exact response was 80 percent as against 13⅓ percent, with the remainder taking no stand on the matter.

Stages of Collaboration

Investigation was made to determine whether there appeared to be a greater need for collaboration (1) between position classifiers and *operating* officials during the latters' preparation of estimates and attempts to keep within allotments; or (2) between position classifiers and *budget* officers during the latters' preparation of an agency budget?

One group, representing 46⅔ percent, felt there was greater need for collaboration between position classifiers and operating officials. Another group, but representing a percentage equal to the first, felt there was the same need for greater collaboration between position classifiers and both operating officials and budget officers. Considering that the replies of the second group were, in some respect, actually applicable to both (1) and (2) above, a resultant analysis somewhat favors the opinion that there is a greater need for collaboration in budget matters between position classifiers and operating officials than between the former and budget officials.[4]

[4] On the other hand, for a favorable opinion by operating officials of the coordinative or collaborative work of position classifiers in classifying positions, see Day, *op. cit.*, pp. 111-112.

Budget Justification

In the justification portion for the personal services part of the budget, data on work load measurements and operating standards are deemed essential. The question arises, to what extent are these data derived from the position classification office?

The preponderant opinion, representing slightly less than two-thirds of the budget officers, or 60 percent, was that data on work load measurements and operating standards were not derived at all from the position classification office. One-third, however, indicated that the classification office did supply some of these data, but only to a minor extent.

Of course, workload measurements, unit costs, and the other accounting or statistical machinery of functional operations do not regularly belong to the position classifiers' field or functions. Items of this sort have to do with how well employees do their work; how economically and efficiently they are organized, directed, and supervised; and other purely management aspects of carrying out a program. Position classifiers are able to contribute facts to the officials having these responsibilities, but they do so only when the total management set-up encourages them in this direction.

Classification and Fiscal Functions

Many of the budget officers who participated in the study were also responsible for fiscal matters of their agencies. It was therefore felt appropriate to sound them out on the relationship of position classification to fiscal functions.

As is generally known, the Classification Act of 1949 provides a plan for classifying positions upon which Congress bases the salary plans. Except for this feature, does it appear in bureau or department operations that work relationships between classification and fiscal functions (finance officers and accountants) are rather indirect, mechanical and routine?

Approximately three-fourths of the budget officers expressed their opinions and experiences on this particular matter. However, the expressions were unanimously in the affirmative; no responses were directly negative to the question.

Conclusions

From the information submitted by the budget officers, it may be concluded that position classification contributes to a large extent in the budget process on the following bases: (1) use of Civil Service titles in lower grades; (2) high frequency rate in which Civil Service class titles are actually being used; (3) providing information for position control in organization units; and (4) in preparing estimates covering occupied as well as vacancy positions.

It appears, also, that (1) there is a greater need for collaboration in budget matters between position classifiers and operating officials than between the former and budget officials; (2) there is no tendency to use Civil Service titles more in budget preparation than in past years; (3) in general, there is little need for stronger controls to insure the will of Congress which will require closer collaboration between budget and classification officers; (4) there is a need for greater collaboration in making known what positions may change grade levels within the year; and (5) work relationships between position classification and fiscal functions are rather indirect, mechanical, and routine.

It may be concluded that position classification contributes to a minor extent on the following bases: (1) operating titles are generally preferred and regarded as more meaningful, particularly in higher grades: and (2) very little data on work load measurements and operating standards are derived from the position classification office in preparing justifications.

Perhaps some light can be thrown upon the viewpoint of the budget officers by considering a few supplementary facts. For example, the budget officers of many departments and agencies are required to prepare, present, defend, and administer budgets that cover several groups of positions, of which the Classification Act group is but one. All of the agencies which participated in this study have important groups of jobs not under the Classification Act. The Navy Department has thousands

of blue-collar occupations. In the Veterans Administration the entire Department of Medicine and Surgery is excluded from the Classification Act. Out of some 2,500,000 jobs represented by the over-all federal budget for personal services, only a little over a million are subject to the Classification Act. Perhaps the necessity of handling both types of jobs, with an attendant impossibility of obtaining uniformity between them under the presently divided jurisdiction of the Commission and the agencies, is why greater effort is not made to adhere strictly to Classification Act titles.

The budget does not have to be meticulously uniform to the last detail as to nomenclature across department and agency lines. It is more important that the job titles used, whatever they may be, should be as clear as possible, indicative of the work and, of course, not misleading in any respect. The budget officer in Department A regards it rightfully as his responsibility to make his budget clear in terms of job content. This is a more critical responsibility in his eyes than any necessity of coordinating his nomenclature to that of Department B when that department sets its own budget. To the extent that the Classification Act provides a common basis for both uniformity and clarity, it is helpful in the preparation of budgets. If the choice is between pairing obscurity and mechanical uniformity, and pairing clarity and variations, any budget officer would pick the second pair.

Differentiation needs to be made between two aspects of the work of budget officers. One important part of their job is the preparation of estimates and justifications for presentation to the Bureau of the Budget and Congress. Another equally important aspect of their job is the whole field of budgetary administration, beginning after an appropriation is made. The relationships between operators, budget officers, and classifiers are different in each of these two activity areas. The classifier is usually in a position to contribute most in respect to budgetary administration. That is because the facts which he normally collects about positions and employees and the familiarity he has with distribution of functions, responsibility-distribution patterns, and organization structure make him in effect a valuable aid to both operators and budget officers. This aspect is of considerable importance to the functioning of an entire department or agency or bureau, especially when compared with the mere mechanics of uniform occupational terminology.

The subject of position titling was particularly important prior to the adoption of the federal performance budget. The titles now listed in the budget are still helpful to one attempting to discover the types of positions used under a given appropriation; but positions actually receive little attention in the review of a performance budget. The possibility of returning to the earlier type of budget, however, was indicated in an address before the Washington Chapter of the Society for the Advancement of Management at its 1953 Spring Conference. Congressman Taber, Chairman of the House Committee on Appropriations, stated that he was not completely satisfied with the experience he has had with the performance budget, and that unless some improvement was soon accomplished he would insist on returning to the earlier type of budget. This return, of course, would increase the importance of position titling in the budget process.

One course of action may be suggested for bringing about greater collaboration between operating officials, budget officers and classification officers. All phases of administrative management are frequently concentrated within the responsibilities of an Assistant Secretary for Management or an equivalent officer. It is therefore within his jurisdiction to organize his own shop so as to bring out whatever degree of collaboration or coordination he deems desirable between the activities of the operating people, the budget and accounting officers, and the various kinds of personnel people regardless of their specialities. That is a job of management within the department or agency.[5]

[5] The writer wishes to acknowledge helpful suggestions contributed in the preparation of this paper by Ismar Baruch, Chief, Position Classification Division, United States Civil Service Commission.

Some Basic Assumptions in Evaluating Education

Roy E. Fossett

In public personnel administration in the United States the principle has long been accepted that educational requirements for employment should be kept at an absolute minimum. This concept is in accord with the democratic ideal that unnecessary restrictions should not be placed in the paths of applicants for public employment. Instead, every applicant should be given an opportunity to qualify on the basis of ability, irregardless of how that ability might have been obtained. This principle, while observed in practically all public jurisdictions, has been written into law in many localities. Many personnel agencies, including the United States Civil Service Commission, are prohibited from setting minimum educational requirements except for professional and highly technical positions. Even in those agencies which do establish educational minimums, this formal training is expected to furnish only that part of the required knowledges and abilities which cannot be furnished by experience. In reality, however, when educational minimums are set for any position, the examiner is saying that this amount of education is required before any experience is of value.

Rating in Lieu of Written Tests

In public personnel testing there is a common feeling that written examinations are the best known way to evaluate an applicant's training for a particular position. For various reasons, however, written tests have not been developed and validated for a great majority of public service positions. The lack of written examinations has forced personnel agencies to use the alternative of assigning ratings on the basis of an applicant's past training and experience. There are several objections to this procedure, but perhaps the two greatest are (1) the lack of objectivity and (2) the difficulty of validating the process. To date there has been no system devised which will allow an examiner to compare and rate objectively by the use of unassembled examinations the qualifications of candidates for employment.

While there has been comparatively little research given to the entire problem of rating training and experience, such work as has been done has been devoted in large measure to the evaluation of experience to the exclusion of education. The comparative evaluation of education of candidates has been almost completely neglected. This paper proposes, therefore, to consider only the educational segment of an applicant's background and to point out certain assumptions which can be applied in situations requiring the use of the unassembled examination to compare educational qualifications.

Criteria Used to Rate Education

Two criteria for rating education are in common use in public personnel agencies today. These are (1) whether the course work completed included a prescribed number of courses in subjects deemed pertinent to the position, or (2) whether the institution in which an individual did his work was accredited or unaccredited by the educational association charged with this responsibility. These are rather shallow approaches, and do not take into account many of the questions which should be answered in order to compare more accurately the educational qualifications of candidates for employment. Though this problem is controversial in nature, the following seem to be basic postulates, or assumptions, which offer a starting point upon which a system more objective in application could be constructed.

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Education Needed to Perform a Particular Job

In evaluating education for a particular position, education, in and of itself, is of no value except to the degree in which it contributes to knowledges, skills, and abilities needed in the particular job. On its face such a statement would seem to contend that general educational development is not to be considered in evaluating education and training. Much to the contrary, such a proposition favors the consideration of any and all training but only as it pertains to the position for which the applicant applies. In the lower orders of employment, the manual laborer does not require any formal education in order to dig a ditch or to rake leaves off the lawn, but the ability to read and write would contribute greatly to his skill and ability in performing other duties in the classification of laborer. Consequently, any education or training which has enabled him to learn to do those things would have contributed to his knowledge and ability in numerous ways. Likewise, a carpenter may be able to perform various carpentry functions as nailing and sawing without being able to read and write, but would not his ability be greatly increased if he could read written directions and be able to do his own layout work? Here again, any type of training which had enabled him to do this would certainly be credited.

The same process can be applied continually up the ladder to the higher positions or areas of employment, especially up through the high school levels. Almost without exception, additional years of high school training can be considered to have contributed to the knowledges, skills, and abilities of an individual in any field of endeavor. The acceptance of this assumption almost completely eliminates any problems in the evaluation of schooling up through the secondary school system.

In approaching the problem of determining the value of college training and in seeking to segregate that part of an applicant's higher education which contributes to the knowledges, skills, and abilities for a particular position, the examining technician is presented with a much more difficult proposition. In attempting to solve it, the examiner is faced with the contention—a valid one, too—that any education contributes something to an applicant's composite background and thus could be considered as contributing something to the knowledges, skills, and abilities required in the position. For example, suppose an applicant for the position of Public Health Educator should present a degree in dramatics. Inasmuch as the Public Health Educator is expected to speak continuously before public groups, over the radio and on television programs, such training would be of obvious benefit. Just as obvious, however, is the fact that some other areas of training would be more valuable to an applicant just beginning the duties of such a position. Under such reasoning this assumption defines itself, not as contending that certain types of training contribute nothing to a person's knowledge and ability, but rather as saying that education becomes more and more valuable the more closely related it is to the position under consideration.

In theory it would no doubt be possible to rank all types and kinds of education and training in the order of its value to a given position. Obviously such a procedure is untenable. To bring the task of comparing education to manageable proportions from an administrative point of view, the examiner is given the responsibility of determining those areas of education which are most likely to yield the greatest return in knowledges and skills necessary for the adequate performance of the duties and responsibilities of a given position. Practical considerations make it necessary to determine, and thus give primary emphasis, to that education which, all things considered, gives more training for the job being filled.

Need for "Specialized" Education

Certain fields of education and training contribute a greater degree of required qualifications for a given position than do other fields of education and training. Since the coming of the factory system of production the fields of employment have become increasingly segmented and specialized. Correspondingly, colleges and universities have set up segmented and

specialized courses of study in an effort to train people to fill the needs of industry. As government has grown in size and in the scope of activities performed, it has in large measure followed, through necessity, the pattern set by big business. Consequently, there has developed in government the same segmented and specialized fields of employment that existed for many years in private industry. There are indications, however, that some recognition is being given to the need of vigor, breadth of vision, and imagination in the administration of public affairs. Furthermore, the administration of public affairs calls for special competences, the demand for which is now being reflected in the educational system and in the development of curricula designed to train people for public service.

In the field of public service, the many and varied types of positions may be broken down or classified according to major occupational groups or fields, as administrative and clerical, engineering, public health, correctional, and so on. Colleges and universities have developed specialized schools which seek to equip students for employment within one of these major occupational fields. The curricula have been built with the purpose directly in mind of acquainting a student as thoroughly as possible with the principles and practices of his chosen interest, hence, the schools of business administration, the schools of engineering, and others. It seems reasonable, then, from the structure of the educational establishment, that for a certain position certain fields or areas of education would contribute more to the possession of knowledges, skills, and abilities, than would education in other areas.

This theory has been supported by psychological findings. Persons who have had training and education which has given them a thorough understanding of the principles and practices applicable to the solution of problems in a given position can become acquainted with and perform a given job more quickly than a person who has not had such training. Typing is a simple illustration of this kind of training. Likewise, the engineer who has had training in the theories and principles of engineering could be expected to perform the duties of a given engineering position more efficiently and quickly than would an applicant who has not had engineering training. To pursue this illustration further, the engineering profession is in itself broken down into various specialties. Much of the training given in engineering courses is basic to all, but would not an applicant for sanitary engineer be better equipped if he presented a degree in public health or sanitary engineering rather than in civil engineering, mechanical engineering, or some of the other special fields? There seems no question that in the professional fields, even should no requirements be set by law, that certain areas of education are more valuable than others. In the general administrative field the same principle holds true.

Proceeding from the above reasoning, it becomes the duty of the examiner to define those areas of education relevant to the position in question. In the discussion above it has been set forth that education and training is valuable only to the degree in which it contributes to the applicant's possession of the knowledges and abilities required for the particular position. From the many fields and areas of training, all of which could be counted to contribute in some degree to an applicant's proficiency, the examiner must establish ratings which give credit for training according to the degree in which it contributes directly to required qualifications.

Aside from the fact that certain courses of study provide more appropriate background than do other courses of study, there is another consideration of value in supplementing this theory. People tend to drift toward those things which interest them and for which they have a liking. They enroll in those schools which offer subjects to their liking, or which offer instruction in the field of employment in which they are interested. A study[1] reported in 1951 that "occupational interest scores of 345 college students agree with the occupation engaged in twenty years

[1] Edward K. Strong, Jr., "Interest Scores While in College of Occupations Engaged in 20 Years Later" *Education and Psychological Measurement*, Vol. 11, No. 3, Autumn 1951, p. 335.

later to the extent of 86 percent of the possible maximum." This study, even though covering a major economic depression and a world war, seems to point out rather forcefully that the great majority of students in college gravitate to the courses which instruct them in occupations of their preference. This assumption applies, then, even beyond the immediate objective of an examiner in filling a given position with an employee with the required knowledges, skills, and abilities, but even to the long-term objective of securing stable and interested employees for the public service.

Need to Consider Recency of Education

Recent education is more valuable than old education. To proceed further from the two assumptions above is to arrive at this conclusion. If education is of value only to the degree in which it contributes to required knowledges, skills, and abilities, and if certain areas of education are more likely to supply those knowledges, skills, and abilities, then the conclusion seems naturally to follow that recent instruction in the area of education in question is more valuable than old instruction. Simply stated, it is the contention here that an applicant presenting education dated 1950 in the required field would, in a preponderance of cases, present more pertinent knowledge and ability as a result of that education, quite apart from that knowledge and ability gained from experience, than would an applicant presenting the same course of training dated 1929 from the same university. Perhaps it should be pointed out that it is not the intention here to contend that education received before a certain date should not be recognized. It is contended, however, that, while accepting prescribed training regardless of its date, additional credit should be given for recency of education. While such action might seem to favor young applicants, it would, in reality, be giving credit for the more recent and up-to-date knowledge of theories and principles which it is reasonable to assume such education would provide. Such action is defensible on several grounds.

Principles and theories underlying any field of endeavor change. Likewise techniques and practices of application of these principles and theories change as new experience and research dictate. In some fields these changes occur more rapidly and frequently than in others. The application of this supposition must be geared to this fact. It is evident that many of the postulates of geometry and engineering date back to Euclid and beyond, but each year brings new application of these postulates and the development of new techniques to fit them to current problems. In the fields of medicine and public health, the theories of the causes of disease and its prevention have undergone wide change within the past decade. Along with these new concepts has come the necessity of building new techniques to apply these new ideas to the current situation. No doubt, many theories in personnel administration which we think valid today will be outmoded tomorrow. Is it not logical, then, to assume that applicants whose education is more recent in point of time will have had the opportunity to become acquainted with these new technological changes and new ideas as a result of that education than would an applicant whose education dates back well into the past? It should be pointed out, perhaps, that the application of this principle does not penalize the older applicant unduly. Applicants who have been engaged in occupations requiring them to keep abreast of new developments relating to the position in question would be compensated by higher credit for the experience which they present. Indeed, in actual application, it would remove some of the handicaps under which the younger applicants labor in the usual unassembled examination.

Such a thesis is further supported by psychological research. Evidence exists which indicates that the amount of knowledge retained regarding a particular subject or skill lessens unless it is refreshed by use or renewed study. The curve drops rapidly for the first few weeks with motor learning being retained longest. Especially would this hold true if such knowledge is not continually used. The value of education to an individual above a certain in-

definable contribution to over-all personality development and background lies in its use in the field in which intended. From this viewpoint, then, it seems logical that here again the educational background of an applicant should be rated so as to give extra credit to recency of that training.

Quality of Instruction

An institution with high academic standards is more likely to have attracted students with greater aptitudes and capabilities than an institution which does not maintain such standards and offers greater stimulus for student growth in the area of study. This and the assumption which follows deals with the complicated topic of quality of instruction and the opportunities for growth which might have been available to the student, as well as the student's performance while enrolled in the educational institution. Admittedly, these are controversial problems, and if efforts are made to refine them too closely the examiner stands in danger of becoming involved in administrative difficulties as well as endless argument. Consequently, the reader should be cautioned here that this premise, as well as the one which follows, is based upon the average rather than the individual case.

People vary greatly in their aptitudes and capabilities. This is vividly illustrated by the annual reports of the American Council on Education on the results of psychological examinations given to college freshmen. In 1945, for example, the mean scores for college freshmen ranged from 127(plus) for colleges at the top of the list to 27 for colleges at the bottom of the list. To accommodate such a wide variation in aptitudes, it is readily apparent that there must be a similar variation in the level and standards of work required for graduation. It seems axiomatic that the contribution of college training to an applicant's knowledge and abilities would hinge considerably upon the standards of work required by the institution.

Examiners seeking to apply this postulate find themselves grappling with the problem of establishing objective criteria on which to base the classification of institutions according to quality of instruction and general scholarship average. It is a problem which so far has defied solution. A start has been made however. The present practice in many jurisdictions is the use of the standards established by the accrediting associations and this represents a step in the direction of evaluating educational standards of institutions. This process is based in part upon the meeting of minimum standards regarding strength of faculty in point of training and experience, the availability of library resources, and various other criteria concerning the facilities available for student instruction. There is a need for a further breakdown of institutions within the accredited classification.

The evaluation of instruction in an institution is difficult because successful teaching is dependent upon much more than superior knowledge in an area of instruction. Difficult though it may be, it is a problem which must be solved if education is to be credited to the degree in which it is reasonable to assume that it would contribute to the development of the applicant for a given position. In approaching this question, the examiner must work with averages, and not with individual cases. More explicitly, if in a certain institution one school or department is noticeably weaker than another, the examiner should rank the university on the general average of scholarship of the institution rather than on the efficiency of the individual departments. To do otherwise would result in the examiner becoming involved in a quagmire of administrative difficulties.

The major problem involved here is: How far should such a refinement be carried? To attempt to rank colleges on a one, two, three basis is obviously impractical. Likewise, it would be impractical to attempt to rank colleges according to the efficiency of individual departments. A suggested tentative procedure would be to use a broad ranking of institutions on the basis of outstanding, acceptable, and satisfactory, or some similar manner of rating.

Institutions which maintain a high academic standard naturally attract those students who are able to maintain the re-

quired level of scholarship. The old adage that "water seeks its own level" states the case adequately, for students will seek those institutions where scholarship requirements are not above their capabilities. To assume otherwise is to disregard the fundamental elements of human nature. To those who can qualify, however, the college with high academic standards offers a much greater stimulus to individual growth that is not available to students in institutions with lower standards.

Quality of Student Performance

Student performance in an institution with high academic standards is more indicative of mastery of subject matter in a course of instruction than is a similar degree of performance in an institution which does not maintain high academic standards. Quite simply it is suggested here that assuming the grade of "A," as commonly used in grading students, is given the same value, a grade of "A" from an institution with high academic standards indicates greater familiarity with subject matter than does the same grade of "A" from an institution which does not have high academic standards. Current techniques of measurement assume that a learning experience may be evaluated by measuring knowledge acquired at some particular time after the learning experience and that the contribution of instruction may be indicated by the growth of the student along the lines laid down in the teaching process. As colleges with higher requirements present a greater breadth and depth in their course offerings, it becomes evident that the same level of grades from different institutions will cover different degrees of subject matter mastery and consequently should be given different credit.

One basic difficulty encountered in attempting to refine this thesis is the very subjective matter of differences in grading which might exist in the same institution, or between institutions ranked on the same academic level. Under careful observation, the question of differences in grading within the same university is resolved by the use of the general scholarship average of the institution. The question as to differences between institutions can be resolved without too much difficulty, once the problem of rating institutions has been settled.

Summary

The assumptions which are presented above are quite obviously open to controversy and questioning. Little effort has been made to validate any of these principles, but to the writer they seem to constitute a commonsense and practical view of a thorny problem. No doubt, there are other assumptions which could be considered to be just as basic, but they, likewise, would be open to controversy and questioning. In presenting these assumptions an effort has been made to cover the primary questions which come to mind in seeking to evaluate education. It is hoped that some discussion regarding this problem which has long been neglected will be stimulated and that studies and data which might support or demolish these assumptions will be brought to light.

The Institute on Management in Government and Business

Morton Kroll

THE INSTITUTE on Management in Government and Business, sponsored by the General Extension Division of the Oregon State System of Higher Education and the Department of Political Science at the University of Oregon, brought together executives and administrators from government and business organizations to identify and discuss common experiences and problems in management.[1]

The Institute stemmed from a belief that individuals in executive positions in public and business life have many problems in common, yet rarely do they have an opportunity to discuss these with each other. The many advantages to be derived from convening an institute where managerial personnel could meet and talk over their experiences informally was felt to be sufficient to warrant such a project. Here would be a place where impressions and ideas could be exchanged, where similarities in management problems that cut across the traditional government-private enterprise lines might be realized. It was also anticipated that the conferees would profit from brief technical discussions concerning more specific aspects of such major problem areas as communications, policy- and decision-making, executive training, and the like. It was not, however, the purpose of this Institute to engage in technical discussion *per se;* rather, an attempt was made to find, at this first Institute, areas of broad agreement and an appreciation of the similarity of many management situations, regardless of the public or private nature of the structure.

Four major phases of administration were chosen as general areas for discussion. No attempt was made to embrace all of the vast body of experience included in the term "administration." Instead, four general themes were chosen for their provocativeness and interest: (1) public relations, (2) policy- and decision-making, (3) personnel and its organization, and (4) the resources of the Northwest.

Method of the Institute

A representative group of Northwest business executives and federal, state, and local government administrators were invited to participate in the four weekly sessions of the Institute. The participants were informed that one of the four general areas of administration selected for the Institute would constitute the theme for each of the meetings. Within this framework the participants were invited to construct their own agenda by submitting specific topics for discussion at each meeting. Thus, within the very broad areas prescribed for the sessions, the Institute developed its own agenda.

The four meetings of the Institute were held on the afternoons of May 21, 28, June 4, and June 11, 1953, around a conference table at the Portland State Extension Center. The meetings were conducted on as broad and free a basis as minds and patience would allow. As presiding officer, the writer strove to conduct the sessions in such a way as to invite full and uninhibited discussion. As for scope, it was hoped that by concentrating on a thorough discussion of some of the many items submitted by the participants, rather than attempting to cover all of them, a more intensive discussion would be gained and the

[1] Participating personnel included persons with such diverse backgrounds as: Director of Personnel, Bonneville Power Administration; Assistant Regional Forester; Superintendent of a Portland, Oregon, department store; City Managers of Vancouver, Washington, and Pendleton, Oregon; President of a Hyster Company of Portland; City Commissioner; Assistant Vice-President of a Savings and Loan Company; a Vice-President of the largest bank in Oregon; Director of Regional BLM office, etc.

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members of the Institute would not feel obligated to "cover the ground" on all of the matters on the agenda. Many of the items submitted for discussion overlapped, and in the course of considering any one of the problems, the group necessarily touched upon a number of others not formally taken up in the relatively short period of time allotted to the meetings.

Management and Public Relations

At the first meeting there was a considerable area of agreement about the complexity of the public with whom management in government and business must deal. The discussants agreed that there were within the range of their respective enterprises many groups upon whom they acted as businessmen or government servants, but in their turn, these groups reacted upon their respective organizations. These groups were identified as comprising the "external clientele public." No attempts were made to classify rigidly these groups, and the discussants recognized the overlapping and complex interweaving of an individual's involvements and interests in our society.

There was much discussion of "internal" publics. For the businessman the internal public would include the stockholders, board of directors, and employees. For the governmental administrator there was the omnipresent and omnipotent legislature, be it Congress, state legislature, city council, or special district board. Although obviously these two sets of internal publics are analogous, the differences between the business and governmental communities became apparent. Governmental representatives pointed to the profit and loss yardstick used in the business world. This was compared to the complexities of motivation and evaluation involved in carrying out legislative policies, satisfying legislative demands, and providing services to groups with divergent, if not antithetical, interests. The intangibles of providing service were compared to the quantitative yardstick of profit and loss. Business representatives felt that they, too, had increasing public responsibilities.

The participants also discussed the practice of public relations as it related to the broader goals considered earlier in the meeting. A member of the business community contributed the idea of offensive and defensive public relations. "Offensive" public relations in the business world refers mainly to "going out and getting the business." "Defensive" public relations has to do with maintaining a policy and defending it publicly. Government representatives found it difficult to use this analysis. It is almost impossible because of legislative restrictions and social pressures to engage in offensive public relations in government. Any agency may "sell" what the Congress has already legislated, but it may legally go no farther. Obviously, with regard to the technical aspects of a program, and also with regard to some of the long-range manifestations of policy formulation, the administrator has considerable influence by virtue of his interest and expertness; however, this influence is generally informal and unsystematic. When a federal administrator made this point, one of the business executives expressed an interest as to "just how far" the administrator could go in consciously attempting to influence policy. In the brief discussion which ensued, several businessmen expressed concern over the extent to which civil servants felt they ought to influence legislators and the public. The government representatives replied by stressing their legal limitations which they felt at times limited them to the point of endangering programs already adopted by the legislative body.

One of the more succinct definitions of public relations for the public service was given by the state public health representative, who thought of public relations as making the services of his particular organization "understood and supported by the public." He cited the state chest X-ray program as a case in point in which his organization in cooperation with local health authorities secured a wide public acceptance of the project. It became apparent that for the governmental administrator a major public relations problem is to get accurate information across to the public. Legislatures are, of course, traditionally wary of establishing particular offices or placing particular positions in gov-

ernmental agencies for the purpose of informing the public. Propaganda has pejorative connotations in our society. Legislators are therefore reluctant to permit the establishment of a broad range of information services in large numbers of government agencies.

Policy- and Decision-Making

At its second meeting, the Institute considered the meaning and problems of policy, one of the more nebulous, yet important, concepts in administration. The discussants tended to identify policy with ends, goals, foundations, purposes, and means. Government representatives pointed to the inevitable relationship between policy in public administration and laws and regulations, while at the same time they indicated that statutes are merely one aspect of policy. Businessmen were inclined to think of policy on an operational level. One business participant thought that policy was being confused with "objectives." In his opinion, policy refers primarily to establishing and maintaining procedural patterns. He cited a business cliche as an example: "It is our policy to do this or that." Government representatives were prone to separate policy and procedure, thinking of the latter as mechanical implementations of policy.

In this general discussion, several categories of policy emerged. First, policy was considered as including the specific patterns operative within the framework of the broader objectives. A second category conceived of policy as restricted to broad goals or ends. Third, an eclectic conception was offered which considered policy as twofold, involving both means and ends. The two, unfortunately, do not always coincide as the means have, on occasion, been known to scuttle the ends.

Although the participants felt that all units within the administrative organization contributed, they realized the cardinal role of the administrator in policy formulation. In this connection the term "top level" appeared. It was agreed that "top level" is a diffuse rather than clearcut zone of the hierarchy. The group made no attempt to pinpoint the specific stage at which policy as such is formulated. Most conceived of it as formally developed in the top level area. However, they felt that informal influences from other levels within the organization must be understood and appreciated in any realistic appraisal of policy formation. Government and business representatives alike described a number of specific instances of the degree to which informal pressures and contributions are being made in the policy area. In these instances, the claim on policy-making was invariably expertness or familiarity with a specific aspect of policy. The communications specialist, budget expert, personnel technician, lawyer, all contribute to those aspects of policy formation which deal with their specific skills, and often these contributions are made informally.

The members were also concerned with the communications problems of policy-making and execution. The functions of the administrator in policy-making are in large measure related to the scope and quality of the information he receives. The participants cited a number of instances from experience which supported this observation. The necessity for inducing employees at all levels to be responsive and accurate in providing significant information was also vital to the success of the organization. The group deplored the characteristic practice of rationalization to impress or appease superiors. This is an all too prevalent obstacle to attaining truthful appraisals. A free flow of ideas is necessary to the successful functioning of most organizations in a democratic society. This free flow concept is necessary, not only for the attaining of accurate data, but also for establishing a necessarily wide variety of sources of new ideas. The members felt that more should be done by way of developing more imaginative sources for ideas.

The group considered decision-making largely as an operational adjunct of policy-making. Again, communications was stressed, the wise decision being the one based on the most reliable appraisal. A related problem was that concerning advice in decision-making. Most participants agreed that a committee system in the de-

cision-making process was advantageous. Individuals in business observed, however, that in many instances decisions must be made quickly and, under pressure of time, advisory committees tend to become cumbersome and collegial decisions impossible.

The question of decentralizing decision-making was important to the group. In the federal government, the adjustment of policies to the regional and local environment is vital to the successful execution of many national programs. Although the specific formula for decentralization would vary from one organization to another, it was felt that overcentralization tends to stifle initiative and imagination, both in private and public organizations, and that decentralization had to be commensurate with the maximum provision of services.

Although some of the participants felt that the training of policy- and decision-makers was necessarily in another category, they could not refrain from commenting on the importance of training those with executive talent. The group in general recommended greater use of junior executives in top management operations. This was considered important, not only for providing essential tutelage, but also for providing excellent sources of information and criticism.

In sum, the participants tended to emphasize the role of the executive in policy formulation, whether it be reporting to the board of directors or appearing before a legislative body. The interplay of social forces, groups and individuals in the policy-making process was recognized, and decision-making was considered within this framework. There was perhaps a confusion of terms, perhaps a feeling that such words as "policy" lacked specific and accurate definition. Most participants were, however, fully cognizant of the processes involved, at least in light of their experience.

Personnel and its Organization

The participants were interested not only in the internal organizational problems of personnel, but were also concerned with the effects of personnel policies on groups interacting with the organization. The discussion opened with a presentation of some of the basic problems involved in the individual's relationship to large-scale organization in the United States. The incompatibility of an individualist tradition with the demands for uniformity and conformity made by mass organization in our industrial society is a serious dilemma facing us today. In narrowing this to personnel practices, the point was made that personnel policy is inextricably associated with public relations. Not only is it necessary to fit individuals to the functional demands of the organization; it is also equally essential to provide an environment that will attract the best suited candidates and retain them under the best possible working conditions. This is true of both private and public personnel policies. Certainly the personnel of any organization must, as was recognized in the opening session, be considered as a public.

In further delimiting the discussion, the group considered the relationship of motivation to personnel policy. The group felt that from an employment standpoint motivation hinged on prestige factors. Obviously, the prestige factor in government employment varies with that of private employment. It was generally agreed, in accordance with a number of recent studies, that monetary compensation, while important, is evidently not the primary factor in attracting candidates for a wide range of positions. Some time was spent in developing the thesis that virtually all positions must involve a high prestige factor for the person occupying these positions. The file clerk as well as the executive must realize his value, his contribution to the organization's goals.

The participants touched upon several aspects of motivation in relation to employment in their respective organizations. Pride in organization, in craftsmanship, the sense of belonging to a professional guild or union, "the drive to do something worthwhile" were all presented as observable factors in business and government. The participants, in discussing incentive programs, concluded that awards as such are of limited utility and are generally so relative to time, place, and personality as to present considerable difficulties, especially when the conditions for awards

must, as in the public service, be prescribed and limited by statute.

Business representatives felt they enjoyed greater flexibility in personnel activities and were in a position to bargain more effectively than government administrators. Government representatives were ever conscious of their official restrictions and of civil service boards and commissions. One government administrator, however, cautioned that at times administrators have exhibited a tendency to hide behind the generally accepted notion of restrictive personnel policies and practices. It was nonetheless clearly indicated that in the business community where a multitude of organizations compete for skills and services, with no restrictions as to personnel techniques, there is necessarily a considerable amount of experimentation and a great deal of flexibility in the handling of such problems.

The participants were keenly interested in training younger people with executive talent. In far too many instances, individuals of great potential leave public and private organizations for such frequently expressed reasons as lack of adequate opportunity, seniority, unwillingness on the part of senior members to hear criticisms from junior executives, and the stifling of imagination in formal and sometimes overly centralized organizations. Although remedial steps would vary, the participants believed that greater attention should be given to developing a reservoir of leadership. The basic problem centers about the identification of those with executive talent and the sort of training which should be offered, as well as the sort of experiences to which young people of executive potential should be exposed. It is vitally important also to develop a sense of career and esprit de corps which would help the individual identify himself with his organization. In virtually all branches of organizational life there is an apparent need for individuals of executive talent. A number of participants felt that business and industry should take the lead in devising the means of training for leadership since they were not restricted in the degree to which they could experiment.

In training executives, government representatives felt they were limited by legislative restrictions and by the pyramid of supervision in the training process. Certain problems exist in the government service which cannot be ignored. The ambitious young man of ability is often overwhelmed by the hierarchy confronting him and finds it difficult to identify himself with the purposes of the organization. This is especially true in large, established units which offer insurmountable obstacles to talented young people who, in order to be discouraged, need only view the organizational chart in light of their future. Frustration and subsequent separation or transfer constitute a serious problem in retaining able young men in the government. In single-purpose organizations, such as the Forest Service, where attempts are made to recruit employees from a common educational source, the forestry schools, there is apparently less difficulty in retaining executives.

Executive training involves long-range planning. A business representative stated that a shortage in executive groups from age 55 to 60 now exists. This lack stems in part from lack of foresight years ago in preparing able young people for executive leadership. The challenge for management today is to take steps to prevent this shortage from recurring.

As for higher education and executive leadership, the participants felt that, though the correlation between professional education and professional competence is indisputable, the relationship between general education and the demands of management constitute a more complex problem. A participant stressed the difficulties and dangers involved in accepting degrees as prima facie evidence of accomplishments and abilities. Rather, he proposed that the applicant be examined in light of the meaningfulness of his work in college. Some representatives believed that, regardless of inequities in individual cases, the college degree does offer in the mass an indication of some ability and attainment.

Admittedly, it was impossible to cover even a small fraction of the pertinent problems of management in the personnel field. The general tenor of this session indicated a willingness on the part of many

people in management to enter into further study regarding the problems of the individual and large-scale organization. For example, the problem of the organization's obligations to help resolve personal problems of employees when such problems interfere with work was considered extremely important. One of the representatives pointed to the work done in various private organizations in dealing with alcoholism. In all aspects of personnel the group felt the obligation of serious study concerning the lives and functions of human beings in our society.

Conclusion[2]

The Institute was organized to provide a locus for the meeting of minds which otherwise would have little chance to come together. It was hoped also that the representatives would point to common problems and perhaps assist each other, initially in a very general way, in the solution of these problems. The Institute was not organized with a view toward the discussion of specific technical problems and issues, although, inevitably, these arose and in a number of instances useful suggestions were made.

The participants indicated many problem areas in government and business similar in general diagnosis and, in numerous instances, treatment. In public relations, policy- and decision-making, and personnel management there was no great discrepancy in outlook between government and business personnel. Rather, there was in evidence a community of interest and a sense of awareness of the relationship between the specific interests represented by the participants to the interests of the region and nation as a whole.

Obviously, the fundamental differences between the businessman and the public servant were in evidence, though not as much as had been anticipated. On a number of occasions the profit-making as compared to the public service motif was brought into the discussion, though the point was never belabored to the extent of developing any tensions within the Institute. The government representatives repeatedly stressed a number of limiting factors in their operating environment: (1) the limitations of statutes and established authorities, such as civil service commissions; (2) the necessarily cumbersome hierarchical pattern of governmental organizations and its effect on administration; (3) the limitations caused by various attitudes held by large segments of the population as to the rightful sphere of government. Business representatives, while appreciating this, did indicate in a number of instances how much more responsive and sensitive many business organizations are towards conditions inducing change.

Many differences were of degree rather than kind. Thus, with regard to personnel policy, the participants agreed that business representatives were in a position to exert a greater degree of flexibility in adjusting personnel programs to changing situations than their fellow administrators in government. In public relations, it was found that private enterprise could more purposefully structure a public relations program than could a government agency with its various and complex legal limitations and restrictions.

In the vital area of the individual in a democratic society and his relation to large-scale organization, similarities between government and business were again apparent. Both business and government administrators expressed a need for the improvement of leadership in large-scale organization; both representatives felt that in a democratic society there was a high and positive correlation between democratic leadership and morale. In this sense there was a keen sensitivity to the obligations of management to employees. Significantly, at the first session, employees were regarded as one of the publics with which management had to cope. The significance of communications, both for channeling command and procuring information, was a problem area the participants felt could not be overestimated. Indeed, some phase of communications was stressed at each of the meetings.

As a number of writers have pointed out, there is a greater similarity between

[2] As the Institute meeting concerning the *Resources of the Northwest* is not relevant to this report it is omitted from any discussion here.

large-scale organization in business and government than between large and small organizations within business and government. There is, also, an increasing awareness of the social responsibility of business organizations and the social consequences of their activities. The increased role of government in business and the consequent close relationship between the two spheres has served in many instances unconsciously to give both a common focus.

Although a few participants felt the need for more concrete exchange of ideas and experiences, the majority took part in the general discussion with an understanding and willingness to view administration in its broader aspects. The atmosphere was informal and congenial. It was remarkably free of tensions which might have developed had certain zones of sensitivity, such as those relating to the events of November, 1952, been stressed. This is not to say that the sessions were nonpartisan. They were instead multipartisan, and where policy views and commitments were stated, they were presented generally with a view toward gaining understanding, not toward inviting division and animosity.

No claim is made that this conclave of government and business representatives resulted in any earth-shaking findings or solutions to management's ills. Nor can it be said that the behavior of this group is typical of what might occur if institutes of this sort were held at another time and place. Rather, it marked an attempt to fulfill a need for bringing together people who are doing and thinking about essentially the same things in our segmented society. In this regard, it did well, and now that a nucleus of associations has been formed, future institutes are contemplated which will deal with more specific and technical problems of management.

personnel opinions

● What is the thinking of experienced personnel people on everyday problems of personnel policy and practice? Their views can often provide readers of *Public Personnel Review* with cues to sound, constructive policy-making.

The editors have posed the same question to several top union officials and have asked them to comment on the various points it raises. Here's what they say.

The Question . . . .

If you were a personnel director, what positive steps would you take in the area of employee relations to promote the welfare of the employees and improve union-management relations?

The Replies . . . .

A. E. GAREY, Civil Service Counsel, American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees.

If I were a personnel director I would interest myself in employee union activities insofar as such activities had direct, or even indirect, connections with employee problems. By this attitude I should determinedly avoid taking the too frequently found attitude of directors of personnel which I refer to as "aloofness" that seems to permit the directors to be oblivious of union activities all round and about them. I would accept the idea of unionization as a probable and a proper action of the employees to improve their own conditions. I would cultivate the friendship of union representatives and union officers and I would never be afraid of them or of any powers which they might, through organization, choose to exercise. I should make a constant effort to sell to the union leadership and to the rank and file of the membership the value of the services which I was administering. I should make them acquainted with the financial needs of my department and I would explain to such persons necessary amendments in my law or my ordinance in order thereby to make more certain that I could administer a civil service system free from political interference or from any other kind of interference. By my conduct, affirmative rather than negative, I should make the union membership understand that the civil service administering unit was their first, their constant, and their most dependable court. They, by my actions, affirmative ones, would understand that I would not deviate from sound civil service administration because of persuasion from the politicians, from administrative officers, nor because of their persuasions. They would learn that I was sympathetic with their laudable objectives and determinedly fair in my dealings with them. Whenever I learned of arising difficulties between the union and departmental managers I should consider it a part of my responsibilities to become interested in the matter immediately. The employees and management would learn from me quickly that my job as director of personnel meant a lot more than the performance of certain duties as prescribed in the ordinance or law; that my job embraced the responsibility of administering and building all the time the personnel system of the jurisdiction.

Although I would encourage and as rapidly as possible formulate so-called formalized grievance procedures, if prior to the promulgation and acceptance of such procedures, or if after such actions had been taken there were found deficiencies in them, I should deem it my duty to move quickly into any situation and to suggest to management and to the employees concerned through their union officers or representatives ways and means for coping with the particular situation. I would never wait intentionally for a problem to be pushed upon me. I should consider it my duty always in personnel problems to take the initiative, to grapple with the problems before they became in the minds of the parties concerned important, clear out of proportion to their real merits.

Employer-employee relations are human relations. The director of personnel should never

take the position that he is a judge on a pedestal. To be sure, he is a judge in many ways and his board is or should be a type of jury, the team constituting a judge and jury combined. But the director should not allow himself, I prefer to say, "kid" himself, to accept the thought that his particular position can be developed into a strong position and a worthwhile one for management and employees unless he is aggressive all the time. He is a judge all right but he is down on the floor and he is there pitching.

I close this statement with a comment for all directors: You had better make mistakes occasionally by the exercise of aggressive, courageous, and prompt judgment than to refrain from a decision so long that a right one carries little or no weight.

S. G. HANSON, General Manager, California State Employees' Association, Sacramento.

Positive steps in public employee relations, as Colonel Stoopnagle might put it, are stuff that when bureaucrats refuse to think it out or don't want to do anything about the subject, they take too many of.

Facetious as the Stoopnagle type definition may sound, it has been my frequent observation that governmental approaches to an employee relations program are hampered by too many steps, positive or otherwise. To permit myself a way out of the web of brevity which I have woven, I shall confine my remarks to the factors which should be considered in areas of employee relations and admonish those who are to carry out a program to make the positive steps few in number.

Before an effective employee-management relations plan can be devised, the personnel director should make himself thoroughly aware of the climate in which the plan is to operate. Broadly, this awareness is accomplished by learning the basic interests of the employees and their representatives and by learning the attitudes of the governing body with respect to employee relations.

If employees are united under a single organization or union, which is intelligent and responsive to its membership, the personnel director's job of gaining knowledge of employee basic interests and aims is relatively simple. However, single representation in public employment is not the rule. Usually there are a number of groups: an independent; several affiliates of international unions; and professional and technical societies.

In this fairly normal situation the personnel director should sample the opinions and aims of each of these organizations. Where there appear to be fundamental differences, he should attempt to find a compromise ground by conference with the groups. Of course, if there are only a few small organizations or no recognizable groups, information on employee interests must be gleaned by personal interviews, possibly supplemented by questionnaires. It should be noted carefully that effective gathering of information and proper evaluation of it, cannot be performed if the personnel director stays at his desk.

With an insight of employee views, the personnel director can approach his superior, which may be an official, a commission, a council, etc. An enlightened governing body with appropriate guidance will establish proper ground rules for the operation of an employee-management program. Unfortunately the norm is not enlightenment, consequently the director must sell the value and need for mutual respect between employees and management. An economy minded group may be more receptive to a plan which demonstrates clearly that an adequately maintained labor force protects the investment in personnel of the public jurisdiction in the same manner as proper care of machines protects the equipment investment. Although man should not be equated with machines, it is sometimes necessary to point out to legislators, who willingly spend hundreds of dollars to maintain or improve the performance of a machine costing only a thousand dollars, that a labor force representing millions in investment can be maintained and even salvaged by the application of time, training and tolerance costing an inappreciable amount.

When the personnel director knows the employee opinion, and the governing body is willing to establish good ground rules, then the director can prepare an employee-management relations plan, which should be distributed to all concerned.

The announcement of the plan should admit the obvious, i.e., that employees do not, by the process of working for the public, cease to act like, or relinquish their right to be treated as, human beings. Underlying any other language which may be used, the announcement must convey the idea that the employee management program is designed to increase overall performance by proper recognition of the energy, interest, and intelligence of the employee and the group representing him.

The plan should express in detail the following points:

1. The right to organize and be represented even though a law may not exist.

2. The method by which an employee organization gains recognition from management.

3. Freedom from reprisal for employee activity.

4. An open door at all levels for conference on all personnel matters.

5. Advance notification of all hearings, particularly on proposed rule changes, and an invitation for comments prior to and at the hearings.

6. The actual distribution of or notice of the availability of basic information with respect to an employee's rights, privileges, and responsibility.

7. The methods of communicating between management and its supervisors on personnel administration and where this information can be seen by employees. Copies should be forwarded to employee representatives.

8. A formal system by which an employee is advised currently of any alleged or actual deficiency in performance or attitude and under which the employee and the supervisor may develop an understanding which may negate the need for disciplinary action. This system, which may be accomplished through the use of merit ratings or training programs, serves primarily as a means of reaching the "gray area" in personnel management. Too often cases are treated legalistically as black or white with no consideration of the in-between area.

9. A formal system for the handling of grievances and disciplinary cases at various levels of supervision. Each level, if such are necessary, should have authority to act within certain bounds and the top level should have complete power to act. There should be no restrictions as to the type of appeal providing the recognized channels have been followed. Appeals should be handled with dispatch.

BERNARD H. McCUSKER, Executive Director, Connecticut State Employees Association.

Did you ever stop to think what you would do were you the personnel director of your state? As Executive Director of the Connecticut State Employees Association, whose members comprise the largest group of any employee association in the state service, I am in constant contact with the Personnel Director of Connecticut and at first thought I can think of scores of things I would do were I in his shoes. Like a politician running for office my thoughts might not keep pace with what I would or could do were I holding down the job.

Sober reflection makes me move to the other side of the personnel director's desk and attempt to view the job from his viewpoint. Although biased by my many years as the representative of the "aggrieved employees," I must first resist the natural temptation to order "give every employee a raise," for I know this is something the personnel director is not empowered to do. Then again I must realize that he has an equal obligation to both the employee and the employer, in this case the state. Since the state is the taxpayer and every employee pays taxes, the obligation of the personnel director is to everyone.

The personnel director must administer the laws made by the representatives of the people. He is not a free agent, possibly guided by preferences and prejudice, nor may he be the agent of either labor or management alone, since he represents both. His obligations are many. He must make as certain as he can that the employee is paid a fair wage for his work, comparable with the wages paid in private industry under the same working conditions. He has an obligation to the taxpayer to be sure that the state is not paying wages higher than those paid for comparable work in private industry. He must draw the line between right and privilege, remembering that the employee has no "right" to work for the state and, instead, has a privilege to do so. The state has no "right" to expect its employees to work under conditions it would prohibit in private industry, but it does have an "obligation" to provide working conditions that are at least equal, if not better than in private industry.

Considering these as my obligations, I would, as personnel director, be accessible to every employee, making it possible for each to present his problem directly to me without fear of retribution from any supervisor for by-passing his authority. This would not discredit the supervisor's necessary authority but would prevent abuse of such authority. This would necessitate a personnel staff in which the employees have entire faith. Such a staff would be comprised of experts in their field, gifted with finesse. A man's job is the most important job in the world to himself and the staff must respect this fact.

I would make an effort to disseminate all rules and regulations directly to each employee no matter where located and not leave interpretation to the supervisor who might be tempted to evade issues within his own little empire. Such a thing has been the cause of much employee dissatisfaction in the past.

I would remember that the average employee does a good job and earns his salary. He is happy and satisfied and is doing his job well because he wants to—not only from a sense of duty but because he feels that he is doing im-

portant work. This pleasant state of mind can be upset, however, by unexplained pay increases for fellow workers. Such an increase may be justified but is often unexplained. As personnel director I would publish every pay increase or reclassification granted, together with all the justifying facts. Such a publication of all pay raises and reclassifications would also help me, as personnel director, resist pressure to raise pay for factors other than "value received." Publicity would lessen the pressure of actions over which the personnel director has no control.

I would remember that every man is expendable and that would mean from the highest to the lowest. No threat of resignation would influence my actions, and I would accept the resignation of any employee who offered an "or else" ultimatum.

Examinations are a great source of trouble to the average employee. Every appointment and every promotion depends (theoretically, at least) upon an examination. Abuse of the "provisional appointment" has weakened the value of the examination, for when an agency head makes such an appointment he is reducing competition. He has made his choice and every employee who competes against such a choice puts himself in an unfavorable light with the agency head. The competitive system is thus weakened and the spoils-system strengthened. As personnel director I would try to make such appointments illegal.

Taking examinations is a privilege and not a right, but I feel that once having participated in an examination a man has a right to know its complete results.

As personnel director I would publish the final mark and rank of all who pass, together with all the facts necessary to prove the validity and reliability of the examination. All this would be done before the agency head would be allowed to make an appointment.

I would realize that employee organizations must be recognized, although they may present many problems. The overly aggressive group which demands more than is reasonable and is interested only in its own members to the exclusion and, perhaps, the detriment of all others, resents any action taken by the director unless it has first been approved by its own group. Conferences with such a group are usually held in a tense atmosphere which is often unfair to the director. A second group might have a different approach, obtaining all of the facts and presenting them to the director in an atmosphere of cooperation and mutual respect. It is too easy to give in to the pressure of the first group and to deny the requests of the second group. I would remember that each has a right to be heard and that the final outcome must not be influenced by the method of presentation.

If, as personnel director, I could accomplish these objectives any state employing me in that capacity would be lucky. But if I tried to return to the other side of the desk as Director of the Connecticut State Employees Association, I would find that I was out of a job for by this time I would have solved all of the problems that now keep me in business.

However, these are the things I think I would do were I personnel director.

LUTHER C. STEWARD, President, National Federation of Federal Employees.

There are, of course, many things which a personnel director can and should do to promote the welfare of employees and to improve union-management relations.

There is a vast amount of machinery which can be utilized for this purpose. In some quarters, there is a demand for still more machinery, and we hear a great deal of talk and see a great deal in print, about technics, about methodology, and the like.

The technical impedimenta is huge and constantly growing.

Some of this is essential, to be sure.

We must have system—systems for classification, for promotion, for incentives, for reduction in force, for employee-organization relations, and for retirement.

But the best personnel director, the one who sees his task clearly and in the round, never loses sight of the human equation in the mass of machinery, in the jargon of technics, in the jungle of administrative procedure.

A personnel director most certainly must have the fullest respect for and knowledge of the working tools of his craft. He must not go wandering all over the lot, imposing, or endeavoring to impose, his own personal interpretations, which may be eccentric and far afield.

It is difficult to tell whether, from the standpoint of sound relations, it is worse for a personnel director to be a narrow legalist or a free-wheeling individualist.

But from long experience we in the National Federation of Federal Employees can affirm unequivocally that the best personnel direction comes from people who know how to exercise the largest measure of commonsense.

It is impossible to provide chapter and verse for every situation that arises. It is literally impossible to establish sound employee relationships simply by setting up elaborate machinery,

by writing exhaustive and exhausting, regulations and handbooks.

These, no matter how well established, no matter how soundly grounded upon the most modern data, no matter how carefully composed and edited, must be wisely used or they become monuments to futility—and worse.

Thus, frequently one finds that it is not so much what a personnel director does or does not do but *how* he does it that spells the difference between success or failure in labor-management relationships.

Each personnel director in the federal service—with rather minor variations—has at his disposal the same tools, the same general procedures, the same opportunities in the way of incentives and the like.

Yet we find an immense variation in the *use* to which these tools are put.

In one installation, you will find a personnel director who takes a broad view of his job, who meets constantly with employee representatives, who actively puts into effect every constructive aspect of law and regulation to promote the welfare of employees and the efficiency of the agency.

In another installation, you will find a director who will make no move without consulting the book and, having consulted it, will invariably place the narrowest, least progressive —and least stimulating—interpretation upon it.

The National Federation of Federal Employees has been directly responsible, over the past 36 years, for securing the adoption of many of the techniques of modern employee-management relations by the federal government. These have been necessary steps—the building of the groundwork of scientific administration.

But we have as yet discovered no way in which to insure commonsense utilization of those tools and methods and procedures uniformly all up and down the line.

If we were to be permitted the fulfillment of one wish it probably would be for an increase in that most priceless commodity amongst all practitioners of the science of personnel administration.

It would, unquestionably, mark the beginning of a new and happier era, bringing benefits not alone to the government and its employees but to the taxpaying public as well in better and more economical service.

the bookshelf

Labor Turnover: An Annotated Bibliography

The feature is possible because of the cooperation of the U.S. Civil Service Commission. This bibliography on personnel utilization was prepared by the staff of the Commission's Library under the direction of Mrs. Mary Virginia Wenzel, Librarian.

Bambrick, James J., John F. Hillard and Richard C. Smyth.

What supervisors can do to help keep turnover down. Supervision, vol. 13, no. 6, June 1951, pp. 4-6, 16.

Questions and answers on the probable extent of labor shortages and some practical suggestions on keeping employees informed and developing good employee relations policies so that there will be less tendency to "job-jump."

Baruch, Dorothy W.

Why they terminate. Journal of consulting psychology, vol. 8, no. 1, January-February 1944, pp. 35-46.

Causes of high turnover, and key factors in maintaining high morale and work interest.

Blai, Boris, Jr.

Worker turnover bites into profits. Personnel journal, vol. 31, no. 10, March 1953, pp. 367-372.

"Lists seven administrative costs, eight administrative problems, and itemizes eleven things that may cause workers to quit and suggests what to do about them."

Bowden, Gordon T.

The problem of employee turnover. Harvard business review, vol. 30, no. 5, September-October 1952, pp. 78-82.

Presents standard mechanistic approaches to the problem which the author believes are superficial and should be supplemented with more human relations training for supervisors.

Brown, Clarence W. and Edwin E. Ghiselli.

Prediction of labor turnover by aptitude tests. Journal of applied psychology, vol. 37, no. 1, February 1953, pp. 9-12.

Describes an experiment in which aptitude tests administered to taxicab drivers showed that individuals earning either high or low scores were more apt to leave the job than those whose scores were average.

Cooper, Alfred M.

When turnover becomes a problem. Office economist, vol. 34, no. 4, July-August 1952, pp. 4-5, 14.

Cites specific instances of bad supervisory and management practices which can result in excessive turnover in a tight labor market. Suggests study of specific causes, better training, and changes in unnecessarily oppressive personnel rules.

Dartnell publications, inc.

101 ways to reduce employee turnover. Chicago, 1952. 80 pp.

Collection of more than one hundred tested methods, systems, and procedures which have proved effective in reducing turnover during a period when capable replacements are difficult to secure.

Foster, John.

Keeping the work force intact by reducing turnover. Public personnel review, vol. 12, no. 2, April 1951, pp. 71-73.

Kriedt, Philip H. and Marguerite S. Gadel.

Prediction of turnover among clerical workers. Journal of applied psychology, vol. 37, no. 5, October 1953, pp. 338-340.

Summarizes findings of research conducted by Prudential insurance company, Newark, N. J.

Lehmann, Kenneth, and C. Edward Weber.

Workers on the move. Urbana, University of Illinois, 1952. 24 pp. (I.L.I.R. publications, bulletin series, vol. 6, no. 1)

Study of labor turnover in the defense economy with an analysis of factors that tend to increase turnover and suggestions for ways to reduce turnover.

Loken, Robert D.

Why they quit; a survey of Illinois employees who quit their jobs in 1949; retail—clerical—manufacturing. Urbana, University of Illinois, College of Commerce and business administration, n.d. 52 pp.

Analysis of voluntary terminations including background factors of employees who quit, influence of employee attitudes on termination, and reasons for quitting analyzed in terms of length of service.

Margolius, Sidney.

Reducing labor turnover. Personnel journal, vol. 24, no. 1, May 1945, pp. 22-28.

Importance of effective indoctrination as one means of combating turnover. Use of orientation, plant newspapers, suggestion systems, and work simplification.

Marrow, Alfred J. and Gilbert David.

The turnover problem—why do they really quit? Personnel administration, vol. 14, no. 6, November 1951, pp. 1-6.

Report of an investigation of trainee frustration related to turnover in the Harwood manufacturing corporation, showing that frustration is frequently a hidden cause of turnover. Short-term training goals which are gradually increased tend to reduce both frustration and turnover.

Mitchell, John W.

Personnel turnover in the federal civil service. Personnel administration, vol. 12, no. 1, September 1949, pp. 10-11.

Comparative turnover statistics for 1946-1949, and factors to be considered in evaluating turnover.

Mitchell, John W.

Personnel turnover in the federal government. Personnel administration, vol. 5, no. 9, May 1943, pp. 12-20.

Nature of the turnover problem, reasons and effects, and planning for remedial action.

Mosel, James N. and Richard R. Wade.

A weighted application blank for reduction of turnover in department store sales clerks. Personnel psychology, vol. 4, no. 2, Summer 1951, pp. 177-184.

Murphy, M. J.

What you can do now to keep workers on the job. Factory management and maintenance, vol. 109, no. 1, January 1951, pp. 130-133.

Lists eleven suggestions for improving working conditions and reducing turnover.

Norris, Wells.

How company keeps turnover low. American business, vol. 23, no. 11, November 1953, pp. 16-17, 38-40.

Explains how labor turnover is kept down to 5 per cent a year at Shwayder Brothers plants; also shows that turnover is no problem once an employee has been with the firm 6 months.

Palmer, C. W.

Personnel problems in a liquidating agency. Personnel administration, vol. 2, no. 7, March 1940, pp. 1-4.

Determining order and procedure for separating employees in Home owners' loan corporation. Efforts made to assist employees, and problems of transfer, accumulated leave, and placement of displaced employees.

Perry, John.

Labor turnover—and what to do about it. Factory management and maintenance, vol. 111, no. 1, January 1953, pp. 233-242.

Suggests that management satisfaction with operations is closely related to employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and suggests ways in which to improve employee morale and decrease turnover.

Scholl, Charles E., Jr. and Roger M. Bellows.

A method for reducing employee turnover. Personnel, vol. 29, no. 3, November 1952, pp. 234-236.

Results of research study show that an appreciable amount of turnover could be avoided by careful study of application blanks in terms of certain factors.

Smith, Frank J. and Willard A. Kerr.

Turnover factors as assessed by the exit interview. Journal of applied psychology, vol. 37, no. 5, October 1953, pp. 352-355.

Taft, Ronald and Audrey Mullins.

Who quits, and why. Personnel journal, vol. 24, no. 8, February 1946, pp. 300-307.

Personal factors in turnover, as shown in survey made in an Australian factory. Analysis of effect of such factors as age, sex, marital status, intelligence, and types of specific reasons given.

Tiffin, Joseph.

The analysis of personnel data in relation to turnover on a factory job. Journal of applied psychology, vol. 31, no. 6, December 1947, pp. 615-616.

Illustrates how analysis of personnel data obtained at time of employment revealed certain significant differences between employees who later acquired long tenure and employees who stayed on the job for only a short time.

Tiffin, Joseph and R. F. Phelan.

Use of the Kuder preference record to predict turnover in an industrial plant. Personnel psychology, vol. 6, no. 2, Summer 1953, pp. 195-204.

Methodology and results of research comparing scores on Kuder preference record of 1109 present employees and 450 voluntary quits in an industrial plant.

U.S. Employment service.

Suggestions for control of turnover and absenteeism. Washington, U.S. Govt. print. off., 1951. 30 pp., forms.

Gives method for computing turnover and absenteeism rates, analyzing the cost of each, and providing corrective measures for specific causes.

U.S. War department. Civilian personnel division. Employee relations branch.

Control of turnover through exit interviews. Personnel administration, vol. 6, no. 5, January 1944, pp. 13-16.

Arrangement for exit interviews, type of questioning used, and value in discovering real reasons for termination.

Waters, Joseph F.

Reducing labor turnover. Personnel journal, vol. 38, no. 7, July-August 1949, pp. 102-108.

Correct way to calculate turnover and practical suggestions for reducing it.

What makes low turnover. Factory management and maintenance, vol. 101, no. 12, December 1943, pp. 82-88.

Favorable experience of nine companies and factors which determine labor stability analyzed.

Why good men quit—and what bosses can do about it.

Management digest, vol. 8, no. 4, April 1951, pp. 69-74.

Eight of the most common causes of resignation are: lack of prestige, wasted talent, insecurity, slow promotions, poor leadership, not enough pay, unsatisfactory working conditions, and unpleasant associates.

Why they quit.

Municipal employee, September 1953, pp. 13, 15, 16.

Survey conducted by Business management service, University of Illinois concludes that desire for personal security, personal status, and job satisfaction play as important a part in making people quit as they play in making people like their jobs.

Wickert, Frederick.

Turnover, and employees' feelings of ego-involvement in the day-to-day operations of a company. Personnel psychology, vol. 4, no. 2, Summer 1951, pp. 185-197.

Research among several groups of workers at Michigan Bell telephone company revealed that the most important factor in determining turnover was the extent to which the employees felt that they were given responsibility and were able to contribute to the success of the company.

Willyoung, H. M.

You can cure turnover. Management review, vol. 38, no. 7, July 1949, pp. 376-377.

Check-list of factors which contribute to high turnover.

Young, Raymond J.

Reduce excessive turnover costs through proper analysis. Personnel, vol. 27, no. 1, July 1950, pp. 75-79.

How to discover which types of employees are most subject to dissatisfaction and what the current turnover trends are.

Book and Pamphlet Reviews

Personnel Management and Welfare. Francis H. C. Brook. Anglo Books, 475 Fifth Avenue, New York 17, New York, 1953. 287 pp. $5.00.

Too few books in the personnel management field come to us from Britain. The British experience is interesting. If the history of the labour movement there is understood, it could be instructive. There has been a slow, convulsive development of the worker's lot, his prestige, and his relationship to management. The autocracy of the industrial revolution days has given place to recognition, respect, and cooperation. There are still problems, as there are in any country, but the function of management is recognized whether management is a private owner or the Board of a public enterprise.

This book, "Personnel Management and Welfare" is not a history of the evolution of labour. It is rather a description of how a British business might and probably should "establish, modify or reconstruct its personnel organization." If the reader is not familiar with British labour relations he should read Part 2, Chapter 5 first. Two contrasting quotations are given: "We are facing a new industrial revolution" from an article by Seebohm Rowntree, and Sir Charles Bartlett's corrective, "Of the three things in industry—men, machinery and money—only men have souls, and money should cease to be regarded as the dominating factor." Mr. Brook the author, in his comprehensive and practical way, concludes that Joint Production Committees should be set up in every factory. He borrows the constitution of an Engineering Union and presents it as a model framework for good management and labour relations. He does depart from description long enough to agree with G. S. Walpole that the worker in Britain does not have any grave designs on the management function. The difference of opinion between worker and management has been and still is what remuneration should go to management for its function and what is a fair share to concede to capital.

Lest the reader should conclude that labour relations is the theme of this book and not the setting for it, a quick return to the contents page will reveal that the familiar fabric of subject matter on personnel organization is there, the Personnel Manager, Labour (Employment) Department, Selection, Classifica-

tion, Training, Promotions, Transfers, Wage Rates, Records, Welfare Services, Safety, the Canteen. There are less familiar topics too, like Formality Influences, Works Hygiene, Rehabilitation of Sub-standard Labour, Industrial Aptitudes, etc.

As the cover jacket states, "This is a book to be used." Every chapter has a practical purpose and is written for immediate use. For example, training as an aspect of personnel management is dealt with in 21 pages. Initial training, progress training, training problems and summaries are followed by 13 pages of training courses appropriate in most industrial situations. This chapter, which is typical, is written in the present progressive tense and the best of existing methods are described with little comment except to point out the advantages.

The book, by American standards, may be criticised as elementary, as conservative, as uninspired and uninspiring, and possibly as ordinary. A chapter on "Selection" has this well worn metaphor: "The entire process of selection is designed to fit a round peg in a round hole." Yet there follows a fairly detailed description of the methods of selection used by British firms complete with forms, interview techniques, aptitude tests, and even a list of subjects for an employee handbook. No detail seems to have been overlooked. The material seems to be familiar. One expects new information in a book and may be inclined to judge it on the basis of how much is new to him. To read a book that merely recalls and organizes what one knows may not be as satisfying but should be as useful to the practicing personnel manager as reading one resplendent with scintillating theories. This is particularly so in the field of personnel management where theories seem to arise as distillant vapour and have their value only when they may be drawn off and put into use as a refined product.

There is in the vast summary of fairly well known procedures and devices considerable homely advice, which does not seem to derive from scientific research but from human experience: "Interviewing is an art partly intuitive and partly the application of experience and common sense." "The focal point of labour problems is the reaction, habits, and emotions of ordinary people." "Every employee should have his job related to a definite group activity." "Much ink has been spilt on the evils—or virtues—of repetitive work. For some it is a good imitation of hell; others enjoy it." "Human efficiency in a plant is economic efficiency." "The new supervisor must be patently the best man for the job, not necessarily the best workman at the job which he is now to supervise."

The American reader will note the emphasis on social and welfare aspects of management. Of 10 parts to the book, 6 deal with such subjects as working conditions, recreation, accident prevention, health services, disease hazards, first aid, rehabilitation, safety regulations and devices, physical fatigue, mental strain, incentives, canteens. A chapter on service to employees commences with a simple direction: "One of the most important duties of the Welfare Officer is to visit in their homes employees who are absent from work as the result of disability, accident or ill health." Another chapter on Health Service gives this human advice: "Employees should be encouraged to regard the works Medical Officer as a confidant to whom they can turn for advice and assistance in personal problems." The writer is continuously concerned in his book with being practical and bringing to personnel management an understanding of the employee as an individual and as a human being.

There is a final chapter on Societies and Institutions in Britain where the personnel manager may obtain help with his various problems. These societies are known to have done much to raise the status of personnel management in Britain. The journals and periodicals with which personnel executives should be acquainted, are also listed.

"Personnel Management and Welfare" is a summary of useful, human, personnel methods found in British industry. The author has not been ambitious to make the book scientific or different. He has apparently felt a need for bringing the best of procedures and methods to new executives and to those who were developing new personnel programmes. He has succeeded in producing a down-to-earth, factual text that could be regarded as a first course in Personnel Management or a guide to current personnel methods in Britain.—ORVILL E. AULT, *Civil Service Commission, Ottawa, Canada.*

Communication in Management. Charles E. Redfield. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1953. 290 pp. $3.75.

The unprecedented developments of recent years in the media of communication have been marked by a concurrent deterioration in the ability of individuals and groups to communicate with each other. This timely book can serve as a useful guide to an understanding of the nature and techniques of communication within a formal organization. It explains,

with many illustrations, the communication process which is marked by the downward transmission of orders, instructions, manuals, and handbooks; the upward flow of reports, suggestions, complaints, and opinions; and the horizontal devices of clearance, conference, and committee activity. The author concludes with a treatment of the theory of administrative communication and its dependence on underlying theories of organization and administration.—STANLEY KOLLIN, *State of New York Department of Civil Service.*

Supervising People. George D. Halsey. Harper & Brothers, New York, Rev. Ed., 1953. 238 pp. $3.00.

This revised edition includes the developments in supervisory techniques that have occurred since the first edition was published in 1946. The chapters on employee merit rating and the use of tests in the selection of employees have been expanded, and an entirely new chapter on two-way communication has been added. "Supervising People" has been widely used in industry as a training manual.

The Employment Interview in Industry. Newell C. Kephart. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1952. 277 pp. $4.50.

Regardless of the nature or extent of the interview, few applicants are hired by American industry or government without an interview. This book tries to show the reader how to match facts about the applicant with facts about the job. The author first discusses the purpose of the interview and the essentiality of job knowledge as the basis for conducting the interview. Six chapters are then devoted to an explanation of how to evaluate past experience; mental ability; motor and mechanical ability; personality; physical characteristics; and motivation, interest, and emotional maturity. The last two chapters talk about how to prepare for the interview and how to conduct an interview.

Human Relations Casebook. National Foremen's Institute, Inc., New London, Connecticut, 1953. 112 pp. $3.00.

This casebook was compiled by the National Foremen's Institute as a training aid and as a guide to management. It contains actual case histories of how common, everyday situations were handled and what happened. Forty-two types of disputes are covered, for example, absenteeism, gambling, inefficiency, wages, working conditions, physical examination. Each case is opened with a question: "Can you fire a man for excessive absenteeism"; then the particular dispute is described, then the result of arbitration followed by a comment on the decision. Although all the cases deal with experience in private industry, public personnel people will get a lot of good ideas that will help them head off or settle grievances that arise in government agencies.

Proposal for a Federal Administrative Staff College. Society for Personnel Administration, P.O. Box 266, Washington, D. C., 1953. 29 pp. $1.00; 25¢ to SPA members.

This report was prepared by a workgroup of the Society for Personnel Administration to help focus public attention on the great contribution to executive manpower and to improved public service that would be afforded by the establishment of a Federal Administrative Staff College. The report discusses the objectives of such an institution, examines several possible forms of organization and sponsorship, and makes some general recommendations regarding curriculum and method.

Correction

In the October, 1953, issue of this journal, the editors stated that Mr. William Tandy, author of "Tempest in a Coffee Pot" was on the staff of the Los Angeles County Civil Service Commission. *Mr. Tandy is Director of Examinations, Board of Civil Service Commissioners, City of Los Angeles.* Our apologies, Mr. Tandy, for this "unauthorized transfer."

personnel literature

abstracts of current articles

1954 CSA Abstractors

The following persons have accepted the editors' invitation to serve as abstractors of articles for the "Personnel Literature" section of *Public Personnel Review* during 1954.

Mrs. Erna W. Adler, Personnel Technician, Municipal Civil Service Commission, New Rochelle, New York

Richard Byler, Administrative Assistant, City of Kenosha, Kenosha, Wisconsin

Earl R. Chambers, Personnel Director, Civil Service Commission, St. Louis County, Missouri

W. Brooke Graves, Legislative Reference Service, Library of Congress, Washington, D. C.

Carl G. Johnson, Personnel Director, Oakland County Board of Auditors, Pontiac, Michigan

Daniel M. Kirkhuff, Personnel Division, Kansas Department of Administration, Topeka, Kansas

Mrs. Fay Katch, Personnel Director, Chicago Housing Authority, Chicago, Illinois

Barbara J. Kingsley, Personnel Examiner, Municipal Civil Service Board, Portland, Oregon

Grace M. Pierson, Louis J. Kroeger and Associates, Los Angeles, California

John W. Proctor, Personnel Director, Civil Service Commission, Flint, Michigan

R. L. W. Ritchie, Chief Personnel Officer, British Columbia Civil Service Commission, Victoria, B.C., Canada

Mrs. Helen Thompson, Assistant Director of Personnel, City of Atlanta, Georgia

Horace Turner, Personnel Technician, Civil Service Commission, Cincinnati, Ohio

William J. Veeder, Personnel Director, City of Fort Lauderdale, Florida

Tom Womble, Assistant Personnel Director, Miami Beach, Florida

Recruitment

Mandell, Milton M., "The Effect of Organizational Environment on Personnel Selection." *Personnel,* July, 1953.—"The job analysis—a mere statement of duties—is no criterion by which to assess the suitability of a potential employee, by temperament and training, for the individual environment of a particular organization." Organizations differ in methods of action, needs and desires, culture, tradition, and even language. They also change their personality with age, experience, impact of strong or weak individuals, and some are more susceptible to change than others. This is a predominant fact which strongly affects the recruitment process for both applicant and prospective employer. Characteristics which define the environment or atmosphere of an organization are: (1) its function, objective, mission or purpose; (2) actual breadth and level of knowledge required for a job which is apparently similar to job in other companies; (3) relative emphasis on quality versus quantity; (4) quality and amount of training given new employees; (5) opportunities for promotion; (6) geographical location; (7) emphasis on individual or "star" performance versus "team" performance; (8) difference in work tempo or pace; (9) varying emphasis on relative value of intelligence, technical skill or personality; (10) importance of seniority; (11) boldness or chance-taking versus conservatism; (12) relative salary levels; (13) degree of prestige enjoyed by the field of endeavor, and of the company within that field; (14) attention to public relations; (15) age distribution of present employees; (16) amount and types of education of present employees; (17) up-to-date versus outmoded professional knowledge and techniques on part of the company; (18) appearance and dress, grammar and speech of present employees; (19) emphasis on talking or doing; (20) loyalty to section versus whole company; (21) size of company; (22) extent of delegation of authority. Both statistical studies and field observation would be used to obtain data to rate

an organization on the foregoing factors.—*Horace Turner.*

Employee Relations

McMurray, Robert N., "Empathy: Management's Greatest Need." *Advanced Management,* July, 1953.—The supervisor who released his clerk when her work performance deteriorated because of the night nursing care she was giving her mother who had cancer was "simply incapable of *empathy, . . .* the capacity to put himself in the place of another and respond as he does." He was *"completely and totally insensible to the needs or feeling of others."* Such persons "with conscienceless unconcern" regard people impersonally. Their limited capacity for affection, interest, or emotional investment in others may be attributed partly to inherited, but more likely to environmental, factors which failed to provide adequate emotional security. Threatened by emotional rejection, such persons turn their fields of interest to *things,* rather than to people. This preoccupation with *things* has been made highly acceptable by business and industry through its emphasis on production, research, accounting, engineering, and finance. Probably from standpoints of industrial development, materialistic outlook and resultant standards of living, concentration on *things* is advantageous. "Whether this growth and increase in efficiency has also sometimes been at the cost of human well-being is a debatable question." That business management today is permeated with efficient administrators, insensitive to the needs, problems, and anxieties of those whom they supervise is evidenced by the rapid growth of the labor movement. Often, "management is literally *ignorant* of much that affects its people," but even with improved communications, employees continue to support unions, their defense against management's assumption that it knows "what its subordinates need and how their problems should be handled." Lack of *empathy* by supervisors and executives is the basis for conflicting attitudes. For example, while management considers legitimate and generous incentive compensations, the union and many employees regard these as "the conscienceless exploitation of the worker through appeals to his avarice." It would seem that the only thing needed to clear up misunderstandings would be for both management and labor to adopt an objective approach. But agreement is practically impossible. It remains for management therefore to take the initiative to effect labor peace and good employee morale. That management remove to staff assignments where major concentration is on *things* rather than on *people* supervisors who are recognized as empathic cripples, and that, where supervisors have demonstrated capacity for empathy they be made aware of its potentialities in improving human relationships and reconciling divergent work attitudes is suggested. By placing himself in the positions of others a leader can develop an intuitive awareness of group needs and wants. Without resultant empathic leadership no supervisor can get the most from his people, much less resolve the conflicts in attitudes toward company problems. In addition to a recommended biennial opinion poll, a series of initial, periodic, and exit interviews is suggested to encourage the free exchange between management and employees of opinions, attitudes, and their sources. Management, provided with "a detailed, explicit, and fluid picture" of what employees want and believe, and why, can then take the empathic initiative in applying the Golden Rule!—*Helen Thompson.*

Testing

Gergin, William E., "Revised Mental Tests for the Armed Forces." *Army Information Digest,* July, 1953.—The services are constantly looking for better ways to test and classify recruits and inductees. Today an improved set of examinations is being used to determine the "trainability" or "usefulness" of individuals entering the Army, Navy, Air Force, or Marine Corps. These revised tests* consist of one hundred questions each, administered during a fifty-minute period. The questions cover verbal reasoning, arithmetic reasoning, spatial relations, and mechanical ability. In answering the verbal questions, the examinee must decide which one of four possible word answers goes with a word given in a previous sentence. The arithmetic questions are based on day-to-day problems like making change in a store. Spatial questions concern one's ability to "put things together." In the mechanical ability questions, four choices are offered in the form of pictures of tools or objects. The problem is to pick the tool or object which "goes with" or is "used with" another picture shown in an adjoining column. A new scoring formula will increase the accuracy of test scores which are close to the passing score. Another new test† has been developed for women applicants. This test substitutes block counting type questions for those covering mechanical ability and some spatial relations items contained in the tests

* Armed Forces Qualification Tests—3 and—4.

† Armed Forces Women's Selection Test—1 and —2.

for men. Periodic introduction of new tests helps insure that answers to questions do not become common knowledge. Equally important, revised tests give an opportunity to make changes based on the continual and important research being conducted by all the services.—*Fay W. Katch.*

Brown, Clarence W., and **Ghiselli, Edwin E.**, "Some Generalizations Concerning the Validity of Aptitude Tests." *Personnel Psychology.* Summer 1953.—In an attempt to integrate available aptitude test validity data, tests were classified into 18 rubrics, such as intelligence, tracing, name comparison, etc., and jobs into 21 common industrial types such as machine workers, clerks, salesmen, foremen, etc. All available data—including much unpublished material—was surveyed and compiled in a master table of 378 cells (only 72% filled) with 3500 instances of correlation. A weighted mean validity coeffecient was computed—by use of Fisher's z transformation. Within each group of tests a similar pattern was found toward a common set of jobs, but differed from that of another group of tests toward the same job. To learn which tests had similar validity, all possible correlations were computed among the tests. The resulting matrix was analyzed by Tryon's cluster analysis instead of the more rigorous and less flexible factor analysis. Three independent clusters emerged labeled intellectual ability, spatial ability, and motor ability, thus reducing the number of dimensions necessary from 16 to 3. Generally intellectual ability tests had highest (but possibly undependably determined) validities for sales and supervisory workers, and high and dependable validity for protective and clerical workers; only intermediate validity for the large proportion of industrial jobs (except complex machine operator); and little value for salesclerks and service workers. Spatial tests, relative to other tests, did not have the higher validity even for mechanical jobs that is usually assigned them. Instead, they produced low validities for supervisors, protective workers, salesmen, and general and recording clerks; but surprisingly among the highest validities are for the non-mechanical jobs of gross manual and service workers and computing clerk. Most mechanical jobs had only intermediate validities reliably determined. Motor ability tests produced only intermediate validities for mechanical jobs reliably determined, and highest but possibly unreliable validities for motor vehicle operator, processing worker, general supervisor, manual worker, and sales clerk. This type of analysis shows many gaps due to research concentration of a few jobs, but does indicate unsuspected combinations for classification.—*Richard Byler.*

Supervision

Lawshe, C. H., and **Nagle, Bryant F.**, "Productivity and Attitude Toward Supervisor." *Journal of Applied Psychology,* June, 1953.—Since the factors which motivate individuals are of utmost importance in the study of human behavior, inquiries into this area are being initiated and expanded throughout the field of psychology, particularly in industrial psychology. Here psychologists are asking such questions as: What motivates employees toward productive effort? How do financial rewards of work, the behavior of the supervisor, the nature of the job itself, and the goals of management affect the effort of employees? The methods of inquiry ordinarily employed (questionnaires, interviews, projective techniques) are based upon the generally accepted assumption that there is a direct correlation between employee attitude and productivity. This report deals with one segment of a larger project carried on cooperatively by the Purdue Research Foundation and the Louisville Works of the International Harvester Company.

In this study, a measure of relative productivity of work groups in doing their jobs was obtained by having six executives rate the work groups by the paired comparison system. An attitude questionnaire was administered to the employees of these work groups. From this questionnaire twenty-two items were used to measure employee attitude toward the immediate supervisor of the work group. The correlation between the executives' rating of the productivity of the work groups and the employee's attitude toward the supervisor was 0.86. This relationship substantiates the hypothesis that the supervisor's behavior, as perceived by the employees, is highly related to the output of the work group.

This is all that the study actually proves, but in this respect the finding is supported by the judgment of many writers in the field. One (French) points out that "Leadership has long been regarded as the most important factor in group effectiveness . . . "; another (Katz), reporting on the Prudential study, lists a number of variables in supervisory behavior which were related to the productivity of the work group. It was found that supervisors of high productivity groups: (1) placed less direct emphasis on production as a goal; (2) encouraged worker participation in making decisions; (3) were more employee conscious; (4) spent more

time in supervision and less in production work. The only employee attitude in the study positively related to productivity was pride in the work group.—*W. Brooke Graves.*

Guion, Robert M., "The Employee Load of First-Line Supervisors." *Personnel Psychology,* Summer, 1953.—This study is concerned with determining what variables or factors are associated with varying sizes of employee load of first-line supervisors in factories, and with establishing a means, in terms of such factors, of describing a "normal" load. A questionnaire approach was used to study the jobs of 10 first-line supervisors in each plant in the survey. Of 323 companies contacted, 135 or 41.8% agreed to participate. Of these, 98 continued to complete all steps of the survey. The assistance of the cooperating firms was asked in selecting the variables to be studied. Preliminary suggestion lists returned by them indicating the factors which each firm believed importantly related to employee load were analyzed and a checklist of suggested factors compiled. Variables identified in this study as significantly related to number of employees supervised were: nature of jobs supervised, method of pay of employees, classification of supervisor's department, size of plant, manufacturing category, amount of floor space, average learning period for jobs supervised, amount of supervisory assistance, amount of clerical assistance, number of different kinds of jobs supervised, and proportion of time spent "off-the-floor." No significant relationships were shown between work load and any of the variables indicating responsibility for labor relations, methods and rates, maintenance of records, selection and placement, and regular operating problems. The job situational factors were found to account for about 41% of the total variance in employee loads. Future research will seek to find out how much of the remaining systematic variance can be attributed to personal characteristics of the supervisor and to variations in company policy. Some companies tend consistently to give their supervisors lighter than average loads, but beyond this tendency there is relatively little consistency among companies. Some attention to management policies might well be given in future research to explain portions of the remaining variance in employee loads. (Article contains tables and charts showing statistical analyses.)—*Earl R. Chambers.*

Kubly, Harold E., "Are Your Decisions Reflective or Intuitive?" *Advanced Management,* June, 1953.—Among the several matters to be cleared up in an exploration of decision-making as a management activity is the meaning of terms used to describe a top manager's approach, in order to bring the points of disagreement out into the open. To ask what is meant when it is said that management's decisions are reflective or intuitive may lead to discovering when the reflective decision differs from the intuitive, if it actually does. The reflective decision, misleadingly characterized as scientific, indicates that a top manager has marshalled all pertinent facts, perhaps discussed them with informed persons, weighed the facts logically, and reached a decision which he is willing to accept as probably the correct one. The top manager must evaluate the intangible elements of a situation, along with measurable facts which he will interpret in the light of his background, experience, training, beliefs and values, and he will act on this basis. The intuitive approach reaches a decision quickly. The executive is satisfied with a brief analysis of facts, and feels, for reasons of mental economy, that his selected course of action is right. This important but elusive feeling is supported ultimately by the individual's past experiences and observations. Intuitions are immediate reactions to a set of facts, whereas the reflective approach attempts to lay bare the causal connections between facts. Each of these two approaches to decision-making has some element of the other in many cases. Both approaches respect facts and reject nonrational attempts; both accept the validity of the canons of logic and depend on understanding; and both deal in probabilities. It would not be wrong to insist that these two types of decisions are but two sides of a common approach, with the reflective decision usually formulated after a slow, careful analysis of facts and the intuitive decision reached quickly. The temperament of the executive and the press of affairs determine which approach he will use.—*Erna W. Adler.*

Rating

Van Zelst, Raymond H., and **Kerr, Willard A.,** Workers' Attitudes Toward Merit Rating." *Personnel Psychology,* Summer, 1953.—Representative samples of the total work force of 14 firms in 11 states were surveyed, utilizing a specially constructed questionnaire composed of 16 background and criterion items and 10 opinion items in order to study the attitudes of workers toward merit rating. Responses of 340 personnel were analyzed by means of percentage, correlation, and factor analysis. Approximately 60 per cent of the workers reported that

they had been subject to merit rating during their work history. Slightly over half stated that being subject to merit rating gives them a sense of insecurity. Half feel that no weight should be given to merit rating when deciding whom to lay off when it is necessary to reduce the work force. Nine out of ten workers believe an employee should have the right to appeal his rating to management. Only one worker in ten feels that he derives any personal benefit from merit rating. Most of the workers feel that the raters are familiar with the employee's work behavior and characteristics. They do not feel that raters are influenced by closeness of acquaintance or friendships. Respondents with previously known exposure to merit rating are less favorable towards the use of ratings in layoff determination, promotion determination, and use in guidance and correction. These same respondents are also most definite about inclusion of co-workers in the rating process. An intercorrelational analysis, using the Thurstone centroid method, was performed to provide a test that a significant pattern structure exists within the total data. Conclusions drawn from the study indicate that the typical respondent expresses very restricted confidence in merit rating. (Article contains tables showing list of subjects, questions used in survey and responses, matrix of tetrachoric intercorrelations, and rotated factor loadings.) —*Tom D. Womble.*

Placement

Jansson, Kurt, "The Employment of Handicapped Workers in Industry." *International Labour Review,* August, 1953.—The handicapped should be thought of in terms of abilities rather than disabilities. Like all individuals, the handicapped are individuals with physical and mental abilities and limitations. The integration of the handicapped into productive employment is a task of great importance. Employers are justified in expecting that the disabled worker have the skill and physical abilities to perform the job, that he not be a safety hazard to himself or fellow workers, and that the job not aggravate his disability. Experience demonstrates that there is a wide variety of industrial jobs that can be efficiently and safely performed by handicapped workers if they are placed on jobs where they can fully utilize their skills and abilities to meet the specific demands of the job. The idea of physical fitness as a condition of employment is being replaced by the concept of abilities in relation to job requirements. The necessity of evaluating the physical and vocational capacities of the worker in terms of a specific job requires: (1) analysis of the specific nature and task of the job to determine skills and physical abilities required; and (2) an evaluation of the physical and environmental capacities of the worker. By correlating the results of these analyses, workers are placed on jobs for which they are vocationally and physically suited. To facilitate the selective placement of handicapped workers, various assessment scales have been applied in analyzing the jobs and the workers. The more elaborate scales include numerous physical and environmental factors which provide a more accurate appraisal of both jobs and workers. Thus, the fitness of the worker for the job is determined in relation to his total qualifications, of which his physical abilities are only a part. A number of studies demonstrate that the work efficiency of the disabled worker, as measured by the rate and quality of production, accident rates, and absenteeism, compares favorably with that of the nondisabled workers. Placement programs for the handicapped must be closely integrated with medical care and physical and vocational rehabilitation services. Along with the development of vocational training programs, consideration needs to be given to preparing handicapped workers psychologically for productive work. If adequate rehabilitation services are available and effective placement techniques are employed, impaired workers will become an integral part of the manpower source.—*Grace M. Pierson.*

Salaries

Yoder, Dale, and **Wilson, Lenore P. N.,** "Personnel Salaries and Ratios: 1953." *Personnel,* July, 1953.—Replies received by the University of Minnesota Industrial Relations Center from 563 "top Personnel Managers" indicate higher salaries and higher personnel ratios in 1953. The number of personnel people in professional, technical, and clerical positions per 100 employees has increased in 1953, reversing a trend toward lower personnel ratios during the four previous years. The average personnel ratio in manufacturing; trade; construction; banking, finance and insurance; transportation; other public utilities, and government, is 0.74. In 1952 it was 0.61. The median ratio for 1953, which may be a more representative figure is 0.80. In 1953, the average mean ratio per industry varies from 1.07 in banking, finance, and insurance to 0.58 in government. Generally speaking, the larger the organization, the smaller the personnel ratio. The average salary for personnel managers in 1953 is $10,060 as compared with $8,700 in 1949; $8,188 in 1950; $8,581 in 1951; and

$9,685 in 1952. The median salary for 1953 is $8,500 which may be a more representative figure because of the influence that a few very high salaries exert upon the mean. 64.8 percent reported receiving supplementary compensation such as bonuses, insurance, profit sharing, and the like. Though the average amount received was $1,881, the amount varied from $2,570 in trade industries to none in government. Exclusive of widespread supplementary compensation, over 72 percent of those reporting averaged a 4 percent salary increase in 1953. Increases by industry were as follows: government, $590; other public utilities, $639; banking, etc., $874; manufacturing, $887; miscellaneous, $896; transportation, $973; construction, $980; and trade $1,170. Of 78 different titles reported by personnel administrators, 293 reported their titles as "personnel manager" or "director" (the title more common in smaller firms), 116 as "industrial relations directors" or "managers," and 21 as "vice-presidents." The "industrial relations director" title has shown the greatest proportional increase in popularity in recent years. The average salary of personnel managers is $9,009, industrial relations directors, $12,635, and vice-presidents, $20,133. (Article contains charts and tables showing breakdown of ratios and salaries by industry and number of employees.)—*John W. Proctor.*

Performance Standards

Ricketts, Edmond F., "Performance Standards for City Employees." *Public Management,* August, 1953.—Possible standards of work performance for city services are almost unlimited. Is their application worthwhile, however? If so, what limitations exist? The ultimate standard for judging services may be the degree of citizen satisfaction. Opinions of council members, citizen complaints, and election outcomes, may be indicative but may be influenced by irrelevant matters. Work standards are necessary, for many public expenditures are for activities that can be measured directly. Some may not be measurable precisely, of course, and unfortunately measures tend to be quantitative rather than qualitative, neglecting other aspects of supervision. Nonapplication of standards, however, may create management weaknesses. Development and use of work performance standards must be tailored to the needs of each municipality, and getting them accepted is a major problem. The administrator of a small operation tends to shy away from measures implying much precision and detail, but even he can develop useful work standards without a technical staff or elaborate records. He may also benefit through discovery of poor supervision or work procedures. A preliminary meeting of the administrator with subordinate supervisory personnel should be held to outline the program, explain its need, and to indicate what types of work performance criteria should be looked for. The basic producing unit should be identified. Usually this will be the position, but it may be a group of employees. The objectives and tasks of each position should be clearly set forth, with primary attention on the objective, secondarily upon each part of the work resulting in a usable product or effect. All elements reflecting good or poor work performance should then be identified. Concurrently, records and activities reports should be studied as an aid in formulating the standards. Their use should not require elaborate instructions or special reporting systems beyond those needed for the particular jurisdiction. Most important, the supervisor should know the standards and their limitations, use them in the day-to-day supervisory process, and establish the department's expectations in the minds of their subordinates. They should appear reasonable to the worker whose performance is being gauged as well as for the supervisor. Performance standards should be instituted with careful timing. Some training of supervisory personnel will be needed to avoid employee hostility. The standards should not be linked to within-range pay adjustments or to an incentive wage system. If possible, their application to supervisors should precede application to nonsupervisory employees. Simultaneous exploitation of other means of improving services will also be helpful in instituting the program. Performance standards are not a panacea for the ailments of management. They are one of a number of useful approaches to the total job of effective administration.—*Carl G. Johnson.*

Training

Klippert, William H., and **Clay, Hubert H.,** "Management Development—A New Procedure." *Personnel Journal,* July-August, 1953.—A new type of management development course was conducted recently by the University of Akron for a group of Akron business executives. Each of the twelve 90-minute evening sessions was designed to effect maximum participation of the men attending. To start, the case study method was used to develop understanding of various management functions and methods. Each participant was asked to present one of his own current problems for analysis and recommended action. As a result of dis-

cussing such cases, a sort of problem-solving technique was developed, as follows: (1) Briefly describe the problem. (2) Determine the available facts and their relative importance to the problem. (3) Weigh and decide. (4) Take action according to specific steps. (5) Review. As the meetings progressed, the manner of handling cases changed from a tendency to leap quickly to conclusions to a willingness to deliberate carefully. Moreover, in cases involving interpersonal relations, criticism of the other fellow's behavior changed to critical self analysis. To help develop self-understanding, each man was asked to write a confidential description of himself, was given a personality inventory, and was described by three business associates. The results were summarized in individual confidential reports. Only general interpretations of the personality inventory and implications of various scores were discussed before the group. The inaccuracy of the self-descriptions revealed many clues to individual personality and were helpful in self-understanding. Comments made at the conclusion stressed that the course, despite its brevity, filled a genuine need and should be continued. —*Daniel M. Kirkhuff.*

Egger, Rowland, "Is the Climate Right?" *Personnel Administration,* July 1953.—A concerted program of executive development is imperative in the federal government. Executive development is a function of organizational leadership, and top management must care enough to provide the prime force for the program. In some cases, departmental and agency management seems to be vitally interested in, and competent to supply the requisite leadership to, programs of executive development. In other cases, it is clear that at the moment at least top management neither knows nor cares. The difficulties in the current scene are transitory in most cases. The logic of circumstances will produce a growing interest in executive development programs on the part of top management all over the government. Executive development programs are most likely to elicit response and enthusiasm in organizations which are on the march. They are not likely to amount to much in agencies whose programs are being curtailed and whose horizons are being narrowed. In a shift toward conservatism, initial impacts are negative in most operating agencies, but this situation will reverse itself as soon as the new Administration and the new Congress work out the appropriations and authorizing legislation. The third requirement of a good climate for executive development is the obvious presence of an overriding and dominant judiciousness and fairness with respect to the appraisal and evaluation of the work of civil servants. It is assumed that the order on transfers of top civil service positions and the order on security control will be interpreted with fairness and administered with compassion. The fourth requirement is the intimate articulation of the public service with other sectors of the nation's social and political economy. A public servant ought to associate intimately, actively, and professionally with his opposite members in industry and commerce and to taste both the freedom and the limitations of administration within an environment where objective tests and valuations of executive performance are somewhat more readily at hand. The influx of new people from industry and the universities already constitutes significant new beginnings in this direction. A final requirement in a good climate for executive development is an establishment of cordial relations between scientific and professional skill and managerial skill. A large part of the problem of executive development in our civil service is that of making good executives out of good subject-matter specialists. Encouraging advances have been made here, also. Climatic difficulties as discussed above, therefore, will not constitute the major obstacles to a comprehensive executive development program.—*Barbara J. Kingsley.*

. . . *The CSA*

The Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, founded in 1906, is a non-profit association of public personnel agencies, together with persons engaged in public personnel work or interested in its improvement. Member agencies of the CSA are civil service commissions and boards and other similar governmental personnel offices. The CSA serves 400 public jurisdictions in the United States and in Canada. In addition, the organization also includes more than 1000 individual and affiliate members.

Briefly stated, the purposes of the CSA are these:

- To foster and develop interest in sound personnel administration in the public service, based on the principles of the merit system, and to encourage its wider application;

- To promote the study, development, and use of scientific methods of administration and research in the public personnel field;

- To serve as a clearing house for the collection and distribution of information concerning public personnel methods and procedures, and to provide a medium for the international exchange of information regarding the administration of personnel programs in government.

- To render a program of services to public personnel agencies, assisting them in meeting their administrative and technical problems with sound policies and methods.

To further these objectives CSA offers a varied program of activities, services, and publications to public personnel agencies, their staff members, and the general public. Full information about CSA membership will be sent on request.

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